

# Contemporary Psychology

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# Contemporary Psychology

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## Electrophysiology of Sensation

Ragnar Granit

### Receptors and Sensory Perception

New Haven: Yale University Press, 1955. Pp. 369. \$5.00.

By FLOYD RATLIFF  
*The Rockefeller Institute*

IF IT shall be demanded then, when a man begins to have any ideas? I think the true answer is, When he first has any sensation. For since there appear not to be any ideas in the mind before the senses have conveyed any in, I conceive that ideas in the understanding are coeval with sensation." With these words, quoted from John Locke's *Essay Concerning Human Understanding*, Granit introduces his book on receptor processes. And it is a fitting introduction, for the book is principally an account of how the senses "convey" information.

The publishers point out that the book is based on Granit's recent Silliman Lectures at Yale. True. But more important is the fact that both the lectures and the book are based on more than a quarter of a century of personal experience in the study of the senses by electronic methods. And it is this personal experience which results in the book's greatest strength, for there is no substitute for first-hand knowledge. Furthermore, personal experience in a field always includes some acquaintance with the work of other investigators in the same and closely related areas. In Granit's case this amounts to more than

a mere acquaintance; he has an intimate and thorough knowledge of both the contributions of his colleagues and the history of his subject. This competence is evidenced not only by the list of more than 850 references, but also by the author's detailed and penetrating discussions of much of the work reported in these hundreds of books and articles.

In this era, however, no one person can survey all of any branch of science, at least not in the detailed manner in which Granit usually writes (cf. his *Sensory Mechanisms of the Retina*, 1947). In the present work he has chosen again to omit subjects rather than to sacrifice detail. This restraint does not come as a surprise to the reader, however, for the author's purpose is clearly spelled out in the preface (and later achieved in the text). This purpose is: to discuss the aims, means, and results of electrophysiological research into the process of reception, and to go into detail only in those areas where he feels that he has mastered the details.

The major omissions are hearing, smell, and taste. Four of the eight chapters are devoted to various aspects of visual and muscle receptors, and much of the material in some of the more

general chapters is based on these senses too. In other words, the book is not intended to be a textbook of general sensory neurophysiology. Nevertheless, it will prove to be extremely useful as one of the major references in graduate seminars and advanced courses in receptor processes, for the omissions are partially compensated for by the many general principles elucidated—principles which are applicable to all sensory systems.

THE BOOK is up to date. Indeed, much recent work, as yet unpublished, has been ferreted out of its various hiding places. One of the most timely chapters is on the role of 'spontaneous' activity. It is timely because it catches us in the act of making a radical change in our views on this matter. What we formerly regarded as activity due to internal stress or injury resulting from the necessary dissection and manipulation of the preparation being studied is now thought of as possibly being a normal pattern of behavior. This notion results not from the discovery of the causes of 'spontaneous' activity but from the realization that it may be more than just biological 'noise,' for it seems to have a functional significance, particularly in sense systems having peripheral inhibition. The activity of a spontaneously responding sensory element can be suppressed below its resting level, which of course it could not be if the activity at rest were zero. Such a mechanism has the obvious advantages of a meter whose indicator rests in the center of a scale rather than at one end. Also, there is





RAGNAR GRANIT

considerable evidence that a continuous input into the central nervous system, even in the absence of external stimulation, may be of importance as an energizing mechanism.

Granit's discussions of these and other neural mechanisms differ greatly from those found all too frequently in many books purporting to deal with the functions of the nervous system. He pays little attention to explanations devoid of an experimental basis, for "these often tend to assume the character of merely labeling events with names such as 'Gestalt,' 'reverberating circuits,' 'feedbacks,' etc." When he discusses a concept such as 'feedback,' as in the chapters on muscle receptors, it is in terms of events actually *observed* in the experimental analysis of the functions of various components of a self-regulating system.

**I**N ADDITION to the descriptions of experiments and data in the text, there are numerous glimpses of 'raw' data in the 145 illustrations. The reader sees oscillograms of action potentials, etc., which were recorded in various experiments, and which are as much like the ones the experimenters saw and based their conclusions on as is possible to show in half-tone reproductions. Figures illustrating anatomical details are not too plentiful, however, and descriptions of special recording techniques are almost

entirely lacking. The book is *not* a manual of instructions in technique and method.

Methodological problems are not ignored, however. There are a number of discussions of the *limitations* of certain techniques and methods, and considerable criticism of what Granit regards as faulty interpretations of data. Both are welcomed by those of us who lack his knowledge and wide background of experience. But in view of the generally critical nature of the book, it is somewhat surprising to find that one investigator's failure to record action potentials in a nerve is accepted as sufficient evidence to conclude that there are none.

The book is not light reading. The mass of detail cannot be digested in one sitting, nor in several. Also Granit's nimble mind sees so many interpretations and new problems in all this detail that the reader will probably find it necessary to stop and think about them from time to time, for they are difficult to compress into a single and simple train of thought. Of course the subject-matter itself is not simple, and this book, like the subject-matter it treats, must be studied carefully in order to be well understood. It is worthy of such study.

### The Parent's Ear vs. the Child's Mouth

Wendell Johnson (Ed.), assisted by Ralph R. Leutenegger

#### Stuttering in Children and Adults

Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1955. Pp. xviii + 472. \$5.00.

By JACK MATTHEWS  
University of Pittsburgh

**O**NE and one-half million Americans are handicapped by stuttering. Since the 1920s many of these stutterers as well as their teachers and therapists have turned to the State University of Iowa for help in understanding and treating stuttering. Unlike many speech clinics, Iowa from the inception of its stuttering program has recognized the importance of research. Data from this research program can be found in more than 100 M.A. and half

as many Ph.D. dissertations, as well as in more than 250 books, monographs, and research papers. This volume consists of 43 previously unpublished papers and dissertations which have resulted from the first 30 years of Iowa's program of research in stuttering.

Johnson writes with the conviction that stutterers are made and not born. The Johnson formula for making a stutterer consists of having parents react negatively to the normal non-fluencies of speech which he believes all children manifest. The ultimate in parents' negative reaction comes when the parents label normal non-fluencies of the child as *stuttering*—a label which in our culture carries decidedly negative connotations. As the child tries to avoid normal non-fluencies in order to minimize the negative reactions of his parents, stuttering becomes an anxiety-motivated avoidant response, which then becomes conditioned to the cues associated with its occurrences. The expectation of stuttering leads to apprehension, which in turn produces stuttering. To Johnson the speech which the parents classified originally as stuttering was in reality normal speech behavior. From this he infers that "the onset of stuttering took place not only, if at all, in the child's mouth, as it were, but also, and perhaps solely, in the parent's ear."

The majority of studies in this volume support Johnson's semantogenic explanation of the origin of stuttering. Impressive evidence is presented to show that non-fluencies in the speech of young children are normal and that in most instances the diagnosis of stuttering is first made by a lay person (parent) with little knowledge of the normal non-fluencies of young children. Less convincing evidence is cited to show the lack of personality differences between stutterers and nonstutterers. Only four studies explore physical-neurological approaches to stuttering. This neglect might lead the uninitiated to conclude that such approaches have little value. The sophisticated reader must remember that Johnson does not try to report all research on stuttering but only that which came from Iowa's program—a program strongly influenced by the semantogenic point of view.

Other warnings should be posted for both the veteran and the newcomer to



stuttering. Absence of reported research showing physical or psychological differences between stutterers and non-stutterers does not in and of itself establish the semantogenic theory. The finding that all children have speech non-fluencies does not mean that all speech non-fluencies are normal.

The present volume will be criticized by many as a one-sided presentation—as a brief for the semantogenic point of view. Because of the subtitle, *Thirty Years of Research at the University of Iowa*, the reviewer was prepared for the heavy emphasis on the semantogenic explanation. It did not bother me—partly because I accept much of this point of view and partly because I know that this view has stimulated much of Iowa's recent research.

THE reviewer's few disappointments in this book stem from other sources. He has come to expect brilliant writing from Johnson and in any publication he is associated with. Much of the writing in this volume is tedious and needlessly pedantic. True, most of the book consists of reworked M.A. and Ph.D. dissertations, but must such writing be so dull and low in readability? Even Johnson's own writing in this volume falls below the high standard he has previously established in his popular and scholarly publications. His point of view has been much more clearly and interestingly presented elsewhere.

Another disappointment is the discouragement Johnson dispenses to research on therapy. He believes experimental research on therapy is not feasible at our present stage of clinical and theoretical development. He hopes such research may be feasible in the future. This reviewer feels it is feasible now.

This volume presents for the first time complete data of many researches previously alluded to or presented only in abbreviated form, researches made years before the present book was published. To say this book contributes little that is new in stuttering is not so much a criticism of the volume as of the publication lag in reporting many of the studies. Fortunately for the profession, Johnson was able to utilize many of these findings years before their delayed publication.

## Counseling Goes Freudian

Edward S. Bordin

### Psychological Counseling

New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1955. Pp. x + 409. \$5.00.

By DONALD L. GRUMMON

Michigan State University

FOR years the work in counseling and guidance and its modern successor, counseling psychology, have been rooted in the intellectual tradition represented by such men as Galton, Cattell, Binet, Hull (during his aptitude test period), and Strong. This intellectual tradition has been concerned with the psychology of individual differences. The underlying theory has been called *trait theory*, and its application in counseling has used the *actuarial method* to make forecasts for the client about probable outcomes of differing courses of action. The approach has been useful to practicing counselors and has received wide acceptance by the public.

Concurrently there has grown another intellectual tradition which is concerned with personality development and psychotherapy. Its broad theoretical basis is that of *dynamic psychology* as opposed to *trait psychology*.

For the past two decades, and especially since the publication in 1942 of Rogers' *Counseling and Psychotherapy*, the field of counseling and guidance has striven to integrate dynamic psychology and psychotherapy into its traditional procedures. This effort, in the opinion of this reviewer, has been largely unsuccessful. Either one tradition has been slighted in favor of the other, or the result has been a conglomeration of counseling procedures lacking in unity and consistency of purpose.

In this perspective, Bordin's book and a recent book by the Pepinskys appear as significant developments in counseling psychology, for they point the way to a more meaningful integration of these two intellectual traditions. While the Pepinskys use the avenue of learning theory, Bordin attempts to adapt the psychoanalytic theory of personality and psychotherapy to the counseling situation. In both books the integration is far from complete, but a significant beginning has been made.

Bordin defines psychological counseling as aiding people "with those problems of behavior in which the critical issues have to do with their emotions and motivations." This definition might apply equally well to psychotherapy, and, in fact, Bordin sees psychological counseling as a special application of psychotherapeutic theory. But unlike the psychotherapists, and more in line with the traditional counselor, Bordin's approach is aimed at essentially normal people who seek professional assistance not because they perceive themselves as suffering from emotional or neurotic conflicts, but because they want help with difficult decisions and situational problems. While most psychotherapists tend to de-emphasize answer-finding, Bordin thinks that the psychological counselor *must* help his client find suitable solutions to such presenting problems.

He does feel, however, that a solution to the immediate problem is the secondary and not the primary goal of psychological counseling. His basic assumption is that *when a normal individual fails to solve a situational problem, a psychic blind spot in his personality make-up is probably responsible for the difficulty*. More often than not, anxiety is associated with the problem, and it is apt to be *neurotic anxiety*, not *normal anxiety*. The primary goal of the counselor, therefore, becomes psychotherapeutic intervention aimed at personality growth in the client.

Bordin unfortunately offers no evidence to support his basic assumption, but it holds an appeal for this reviewer as it undoubtedly will for many other practicing counselors and clinical psychologists.

Other counselors will find his assumption disturbing, for it minimizes the importance of defective information and skills as sources of the client's difficulty. Such persons will feel that Bordin makes the counseling psychologist into a clinical

psychologist, de-emphasizing many of the unique contributions of the counselor.

In spite of the author's preference for the therapeutic approach, he does not insist that it is always best for the psychological counselor to deal with the client's emotions and motivational systems. For example, some clients will not or cannot tolerate the anxiety usually generated by the therapeutic approach. Also, Bordin grants that situational factors rather than emotional factors may sometimes cause the client's difficulties, and in such cases a nontherapeutic approach should be used. Scattered throughout the book are suggestions as to when one or the other of these approaches (or both) should dominate the interview. The proper *modus operandi* in each case is not, however, clearly spelled out, particularly as it would relate to counseling and personality theory, and the author must often resort to a plea for more knowledge of both the defensive and the integrative ego processes—an unsatisfying, if understandable, substitute.

**B**ORDIN's most productive contributions to the integration of trait psychology and dynamic psychology come from his suggestions for the use of tests in counseling. Instead of using tests merely as a source of information for the counselor, and, in turn, for the client, his procedures turn both test selection and test results into a form of reality testing for the client. His procedures further aim at stimulating the client's emotions and motivations, which serve as a source of diagnostic information for the counselor and which induce deeper self-exploration in the client. Tests now become a vehicle for the psychotherapeutic objective in addition to their more traditional functions in the counseling.

The current arguments about clinical vs. statistical prediction and Meehl and Rosen's recent paper showing that antecedent probability frequently reduces the predictive accuracy of tests have caused many persons to wonder if the extensive use of tests in individual counseling is not doomed. Bordin's use of tests as a vehicle in the psychotherapeutic objective forces a re-examination of this



EDWARD S. BORDIN OBSERVING A COUNSELING SESSION

conclusion, because now tests serve a function which is not wholly dependent upon their predictive accuracy.

Bordin briefly outlines his own psychotherapeutic theory which is built around the classical concepts of resistance and transference, modified somewhat to fit the counseling situation. In dealing with the normal individual, Bordin thinks that repressed material can be uncovered without an intense use of transference. After specifically rejecting Rogers' explanation of how this is possible, Bordin offers a vague and unsatisfactory explanation of his own. This vagueness points to a serious gap in the author's theoretical approach to counseling interactions.

**P**ERHAPS the book's most significant contribution is a conceptual scheme for viewing counseling and psychotherapeutic interactions. He utilizes three specific dimensions of the client-counselor relationship: ambiguity, cognitive-cona-

tive balance, and emotional tone. The three dimensions are relatively independent of one another, and, in the opinion of this reviewer, provide a meaningful way of describing the client-counselor interactions.

Counselors will find the ambiguity dimension particularly useful. *Ambiguity* is an attribute of the stimulus situation confronting the client, one that can be largely controlled by the counselor along a continuum ranging from completely ambiguous to completely structured. The more ambiguous (unstructured) the counselor makes the interview, the more the client is likely to reveal his emotional conflicts and motivational pattern. Likewise, the more ambiguous the interview, the more the client tends to experience anxiety, and this anxiety must be maintained at an optimum level to achieve the therapeutic objective. Bordin advocates manipulating the ambiguity dimension according to the needs of the client and the goals of the counseling.

This book is intended as a text for graduate students in counseling or clinical psychology, and the reviewer recommends it highly for that purpose. It is also an 'idea' book which deserves reading by journeymen counselors and clinical psychologists who work with not-too-severely disturbed clients. It is a clinician's book containing much case material and many keen observations of use to the counselor. Like most clinician's books, little research is cited, though the volume has a potential for provoking research activity.

## Childhood by Freud out of Yale

Paul Henry Mussen and John Janeway Conger

### Child Development and Personality

New York: Harper & Brothers, 1956. Pp. xii + 569. \$6.00.

By ELEANOR E. MACCOBY  
Harvard University

THIS book takes a systematic position on the nature of human development, a position that stems from a joining of Hullian behavior theory with psychoanalytic concepts. In this synthesis, the authors follow closely such predecessors as Miller, Dollard, Mowrer, Sears, and Whiting. The account does not purport to be a general text in child psychology, and it includes relatively little material on such traditional topics as intelligence, concept formation, language, and motor development, although these topics are all touched upon. As the title implies, the emphasis is upon personality, and for Mussen and Conger this means upon the socialization process, since their bias is toward nurture rather than nature as the source of most significant variance in personality growth.

The authors take seriously their responsibility for presenting empirical evidence for or against the theoretical positions they discuss, and their coverage of the literature is thorough; yet their book is much more than a compendium of research. The findings they cite are superbly woven into the main argument of the text. Occasionally, one can take

issue with the presentation or interpretation of a particular set of studies. For example, I felt the authors were too uncritical in their acceptance of some of the research on maternal deprivation. They say, "The works of these three investigators—Ribble, Spitz and Goldfarb—demonstrate the pervasive and long-lasting consequences of poor infantile care and inadequate parent-child relationships," although they pointed out earlier some of the questions that have been raised concerning the validity of Ribble's work. There are also certain limitations in the design and analysis of the studies by Spitz and Goldfarb which mean, I think, that although this work is provocative, it should not be presented to students without qualification. In most instances, however, Mussen and Conger are careful in their evaluation of research, and present contrary evidence or interpretations where they exist.

The old dilemma of whether to organize a book on child development by age levels or topic headings has been admirably solved here. Most of the book is organized by age levels, but the discussion of a particular topic is not scattered piecemeal through a series of chapters. Rather, each topic is discussed fairly completely under the age level where it is most appropriate. Thus, in the chapter on the first year, we find the discussion of feeding and orality; the chapter on the second year covers dependency and toilet training; whereas the discussion of IQ, its measurement and stability, comes under "middle childhood."

WITH the treatment of secondary drive and secondary reward in this book I felt a certain dissatisfaction. Learned reward is defined in terms of cues accompanying primary reward and is illustrated with the token-reward experiments with chimpanzees. Learned drive is defined in the orthodox Miller manner, and the attachment of fear to previously neutral cues is given as a familiar example. But Murray's "needs" are also put forward as examples of learned drives, and one of them is described as *n Succorance*: "To seek aid, protection or sympathy . . . to adhere to an affectionate nurturant parent. To be dependent." Elsewhere Mussen and Conger describe dependency as the seeking of a learned

reward: "The feelings of pleasure that come with hunger reduction and relief of tension become attached to her [the mother] personally, and she begins to have considerable learned reward value for the child." Which concept do the authors intend, then, to be applied to dependency, learned drive or learned reward? Do they mean to suggest that the seeking of a learned reward necessarily implies the presence of a learned drive? If so, one of the two concepts is superfluous. If not, the authors should distinguish them more clearly.

A thorny problem for writers on personality is the selection and definition of variables to be considered relevant. I felt Mussen and Conger used some of their concepts more loosely than they needed to have done and sometimes grouped together under a single variable phenomena which might profitably have been considered separately. For example a "permissive" mother is defined at one point as one who "rewards new responses and thus encourages her offspring to continue his explorations." A few pages later, we find the phrase "mothers who are permissive with their infants (breast-feed for a long time, cuddle them, etc.)," and here permissiveness seems to be equated with what other writers have called "warmth." Warmth and permissiveness are certainly conceptually separable, and one can posit different implications of these two variables for the development of such facets of personality as guilt. Similarly, when they discuss the studies on "oral deprivation," the authors do not bring their principles of behavior theory to bear upon the distinction between the many measures of "oral frustration" that have been used by the various authors they cite: early weaning, brief feeding periods, cup-feeding (as distinct from breast-feeding), scheduled feeding, severe weaning (involving punishment for sucking), and abrupt weaning. Instead, they are content to let these aspects of infant feeding stand as roughly equivalent measures of oral frustration. Thus, I sense some missed opportunities for original analysis; but the book is excellent as a coherent organization of existing findings and as a presentation of a theory.



## The Freud Centenary

Jacob A. Arlow

### The Legacy of Sigmund Freud

New York: International Universities Press, 1956. Pp. 96. \$2.00.

Ernest Jones

### Sigmund Freud: Four Centenary Addresses

New York: Basic Books, 1956. Pp. 150. \$3.75.

By HAROLD KENNETH FINK

*American Foundation of Religion  
and Psychiatry  
New York, N. Y.*

THE PSYCHOLOGY of personality owes more to Freud than to any other worker. Freud was an isolate because he did not climb on the bandwagon of an already initiated school of thought. His critical, restless, inquiring mind kept him from accepting conventional views, while pushing him to continual search for knowledge, toward illusion-shattering discoveries such as the unconscious, infantile sexuality, and the Oedipal complex. Freud stressed the biological drives, in tune with his contemporaries who emphasized the hereditary and physical components of disease, thereby slighting the environmental, social, and cultural aspects, as delineated in such present-day schools as those of Sullivan, Horney, Adler, and Jung. Like many men of genius, Freud's influence took root at a propitious time, following World War I, when there was a growing unrest concerning the discrepancy between morality and behavior. Although offending common sense and arousing man's defenses against his tabooed sexual aims, he helped speed the demise of Victorian morality by stressing that that which is basic in man is not necessarily wicked.

The first of these two handsome volumes, commemorating the Freud Centenary, concerns Freud's works, the second his genius. Dr. Arlow has accomplished the difficult task of including in less than a hundred pages a comprehensive list of Freud's principal works, theories, and discoveries, leaving the reader to add substance to the necessarily slim outline. He places Freud's

contributions to our mores and thinking in a sensible, objective perspective. A bibliography of Freud's writings and an index would have added to this book's usefulness as a reference work.

As Arlow reminds us, Freud entered medicine through biological research. As a result of his neurological studies, he shared in the development of the neurone theory. In *On Aphasia* (1891), he demonstrated that the speech function is affected by many different cortical centers, thus weakening the exaggerated claims of those who overemphasized the specificity of brain localization. As a neurologist, he became interested in the psychology of the neuroses; it was after that when his more familiar books and papers appeared.

In the *Four Centenary Addresses*, Dr. Jones maintains—as in his biography of Freud—an admirable objectivity about the first psychoanalyst although he knew him intimately for thirty years. The volume closes with Jones's 1940 obituary of Freud. With those in mind who would set up a Freud cult, Jones remarks that there are those who display a “narcissistic identification with geniuses which allows the authors to praise their own glory under the guise of adoration.”

ALTHOUGH Freud denied being a genius, Jones considers the following traits as those which Freud shared with other geniuses: (1) The power of deep concentration, tremendous patience, and self-discipline in accomplishing difficult work; (2) skepticism combined with a paradoxical willingness to believe; (3) passive surrender to his mental task, and honest frankness of belief in its expression, along with the courage to buck the current of the times; (4) spontaneity of intuitive and insightful expression; (5) unusual and original, often surprising, ideas; (6) ability to generalize from the particular and to separate the significant from the unimportant, and the capacity for recognizing a problem that others fail to notice; (7) periodicity of productive creativity (with Freud's peaks at intervals of approximately seven years); (8) intense emotions along with strong capacity for self-control; (9) loneliness, bucking the prevailing medical bias that all disease comes from organic sources, that sexuality does not start

until puberty, and that, in terms of one's mental life, ‘ignorance is bliss.’

Jones describes Freud as a “warm-hearted friend, a delightful companion with a rich sense of humor covering his underlying seriousness.” While he was a modest man with a scientist's true humility, he could also be a tiger when someone chose to reject a principle, such as *Thanatos*, the self-destructive drive, about which he felt very certain. Jones suggests that early overprotection by Freud's mother may be one of the reasons why Freud found it difficult in later years to get along with his rivals and was surprised and hurt by their differences in point of view or their defection. Jones believes that Freud's resistance to the theories of others was in part also a defense against his own gullibility, for he could be extremely credulous, as in his initial belief in his patients' tales of parental seduction. But, if genius does not contain something of the naive and the credulous, how can genius make new discoveries that others might overlook? The powerful resistances of other people against recognition of what is going on in the unconscious perhaps accounts, adds Jones, for part of the opposition with which Freud's conclusions were originally received, and the attempts that have since been made to distort and discredit them.

## Good Folk Wisdom But Too Little Science

Arthur M. Whitehill, Jr.

### Personnel Relations

New York: McGraw-Hill, 1955. Pp. xii + 526.

By BERNARD MAUSNER

*Psychological Service of Pittsburgh*

THE PSYCHOLOGIST who first enters the gray-flannel jungle of personnel administration is struck by the degree to which contemporary practices in industry are dependent upon certain basic assumptions about human beings, their motives, their perceptions, and the characteristics of their learning processes. Some of these assumptions derive from the last half-century of research in scientific psychology; many do not.

In a sense, any exposition of the principles of personnel administration which ignores the relationship between the principles and what we know about the laws of human behavior is like a pharmacology without any basic physiology. It is folk wisdom, not science. Several writers have recently attempted to build an applied science of personnel work by examining the field in the light of basic scientific psychology. Viteles' *Motivation and Morale in Industry*, and Stagner's *Psychology of Industrial Conflict* are notable examples. This is not the place to evaluate their success in deriving a rationale for their definition of personnel practices from the psychological theory and the experiments they cite. Nevertheless it is the existence of these attempts that throws into relief the inadequacy of a discussion of the fields with psychology left out. Whitehill does not pretend to write an applied psychology. His book is simply a textbook in personnel administration. Still, the fact that it concerns the understanding and prediction of human behavior in the industrial situation makes it imperative for us to see the evidence for his conclusions about people, the evidence which, alas, he does not cite. Nor are these comments a criticism of Whitehill, who but reflects the general way in which 'human relations' are approached at present by professional personnel administrators in industry and their academic counterparts.

There is a striking similarity of topics between Whitehill's book and a typical text in industrial psychology, for the only area covered by Whitehill which is not to be found in Bellow's recent textbook is industrial relations. Still the difference in treatment of the topics is marked. Bellows presents an experimental basis for much of his discussion, the bulk of it done by psychologists. Whitehill fails to utilize this kind of material; his index contains the names of only six fellows of Division 14 of the APA, and all but two of his references apply to his discussion of personnel testing.

The breadth of Whitehill's technical information in his own field stands out in an over-all view of the book. The discussion of job description and of selection, except for the very scant treatment of the highly important techniques of



ARTHUR M. WHITEHILL, JR.

interviewing, almost approaches the cookbook in style. This is not a bad cookbook, however, since there are included in it proper cautionary statements against the unwise use of some of the techniques.

Whitehill's presentation of training methods and of personnel testing are not, however, nearly adequate for use as a guide in actual field work. His chapter on testing opens with a very commonsensical statement of the uses and abuses of tests but his description of individual testing procedures, especially of the projective tests, is both sketchy and somewhat naive. Upgrading, promotion, and wage and hour administration, on the other hand, he handles from a highly sophisticated point of view about human relations. He stresses heavily the degree to which changes in position and salary involve changes in status and in a person's integration into work groups in an analysis based on the sociological literature for status and social class.

The author's lack of attention to the psychological implications of incentive programs is typical of his general underemphasis of psychological problems. Similarly his discussion of morale is thin. He suggests many criteria for the effects of morale without any indication of the research in this field. Some mention, for example, of the University of Michigan's Survey Research Center's investigations would have strengthened this section considerably.

The tone for Whitehill's analysis of industrial relations is set by a plea for "cooperative negotiation and relation-

ship" between management and labor. He gives a sketchy but adequate history of unionism and a sociological study of union leaders, which would probably be useful ammunition at the bargaining table. The bargaining process itself he describes with a fair amount of technical detail, as well as the operation of grievance procedures.

So in summary we may note that the weak points of the book are its lack of clear grounding in psychological fundamentals and its consequent superficial treatment of testing, morale, and incentives. This book would prove to be very unsatisfying to a psychologist who wanted an overview of personnel administration before his venture into research, teaching, or a service job.

The strengths of the book are its highly readable style, its wide scope, and the effective integration of its account of the entire field.

Although it falls short of complete adequacy as a working guide for personnel administrators, it should be useful for a student's first look at the way human problems can be handled in industry.

## A Psychoanalytic Text

Herman Nunberg

**Principles of Psychoanalysis: Their Application to the Neuroses** (Trans. by Madlyn & Sidney Karh)

New York: International Universities Press, 1956 (first published in German by Hans Huber Verlag, Berne, Switzerland, 1932). Pp. xv + 382. \$7.50.

By MERVIN B. FREEDMAN  
Mary Conover Mellon Foundation,  
Vassar College

THIS is the second edition and the first English translation of a book originally published, in German, in Switzerland in 1932. In the preface to the 1955 edition the author writes, "Although almost a quarter of a century has elapsed since the publication of this book, I believe that the principles set forth in it are as valid today as they

were then. Much valuable work has been done since . . . but the basic concepts of psychoanalysis has not changed."

The author indicates that he has made emendations and added two new chapters in the light of contributions of Freud and others since 1932, but by and large he expands psychoanalytic doctrine circa 1930. Thus, we have the dualistic treatment of the instincts, Eros and Thanatos, the conception of the individual as a "powerhouse of sexual and aggressive energies." We are presented with a libido theory rooted in biology, conceived in the thermodynamic language of Freud's day. The chapter entitled *The Psychology of the Ego* deals primarily with the ego in its defensive functioning. Neurosis is essentially a disturbance of the sexual economy proceeding from the restrictions imposed upon the individual.

The reviewer can imagine that, if this were 1932, he might write: "This is a very competent study of psychoanalytic theories concerning the understanding and treatment of neuroses. It is systematic, comprehensive, and deserves to be widely read." Today certain gaps or biases are apparent. The place of the libido theory "in the totality of human life" does not seem so clear as it once did. While it can hardly be argued that Freud or this book ignore the impact of society on the individual or the role of society in the genesis of neuroses, there is little concern with what we have come to call ego psychology or with the ways in which "the ego's synthesis grows out of social organization." Thus, Nunberg's bibliography, although containing references as late as 1955, makes no mention of Erikson, Fromm, or Sullivan. His only reference to Melanie Klein is to a work published in 1932.

The obvious comparison is with Fenichel's *The Psychoanalytic Theory of Neurosis*. Although not so systematic in treatment, Nunberg's *Principles* is better written and superior in the use of clinical material. The case-history data are not nearly so condensed as Fenichel's and are very skillfully interwoven with the theoretical text.

This book will be most useful with beginning clinical students to whom one wishes to introduce clinical material and some basic elements of psychoanalytic doctrine.

## An Attitude Toward Neurosis

Viktor E. Frankl

### The Doctor and the Soul: An Introduction to Logotherapy

New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1955. Pp. xxi + 280. \$4.00.

By EDWARD JOSEPH SHOEN, JR.  
Teachers College, Columbia University

PSYCHOLOGISTS tend to be ambivalent about doctors and have long since disavowed their interest in souls, but, if they refuse to read this book about psychotherapy and human personality, psychology will be the poorer. *The Doctor and the Soul* presents, among other things, a conception of behavior anomalies that has nothing to do with disease analogues, a notion of integrative personality adjustment that means something other than the mere absence of discernible pathology, and a challenge to explore in research and clinical practice a whole new terrain of ideas about the modification of human behavior.

For Frankl, existentialist philosophy and his own Christian convictions provide both the routes by which he reaches his novel position and the language in terms of which he describes it. It is accessible, however, by other roads. Indeed, one of the contributions of this book, aside from its clinical insights and the pleasures of its humanity and its learning, is the stimulus to ground its central assertions in a context that is more productive of empirical inquiry and that may be more epistemologically satisfying.

The basic contention here is that neurotics are not basically people who have been battered by the world's cruelties. (And, as a former inmate of the Nazi concentration camp at Auschwitz, Dr. Frankl knows much of cruelty.) Rather, their identifying characteristic is an inability to rebound from the harsh elements of their experience, to accept the sometimes bitter responsibilities that are the correlates of human life.

Responsibility, however, while it certainly has moral overtones, is by no means an exclusively moralistic construct. It is not, for example, opposed to the idea of determinism. An act, including an act of decision, may be explained

by the history of the actor. In this sense, one's history is 'responsible' for one's actions. Frankl's meaning is different from but not antithetical to this logical and explanatory one. For him, responsibility is a purely descriptive term, referring to behavior involving the acceptance of events and the guiding of one's life by some explicit set of values.

Consequently, his approach to psychotherapy (not too happily called *logotherapy*) requires the clarification of value systems and the exploration with the patient of how his values are related to such symptoms as anxiety, guilt, and pathological defenses. This conception is very different from the Freudian assault on repression, the Adlerian concentration on power strivings, or the Rogerian reliance on "positive growth forces," and it will be the rare clinical psychologist who exposes himself to these ideas without feeling that his thinking about his job has been productively challenged.

ONE set of problems that immediately confronts the psychologist, for instance, provides a number of guides to research and modifications in clinical procedure. What is the relationship of various value orientations to frustration tolerance? To what extent do value propositions mediate various forms of adaptive behavior? How are the value systems of parents related to the developing adjustments of children? How are the value systems of therapists related to the outcomes of therapy?

There are difficulties in *The Doctor and the Soul* too. Frankl's therapeutic procedures sound highly intellectualized at times, and he never quite becomes convincing when he insists that the values of the therapist cannot be thrust upon the patient. As is usual in such books, there is little concern for the evidence that therapy is demonstrably effective. While he characterizes psychotherapy as "education toward responsibility," he never indicates how the learning takes place in the consulting room, let alone how it becomes generalized to the extraclinical world.

Both good books typically suggest more problems than answers, and in this field a doctor's reach should exceed his grasp, else what are psychologists for?



# CP SPEAKS . . .

**W**HAT is going to happen in America about knowledge of foreign languages? As the world gets smaller with improved communications, countless Americans as tourists and soldiers see foreign lands but they do not talk to the people in them—not much. They talk to one another in English. American isolationism protrudes thousands of miles from her shores. That is because of America's size, power, and self-sufficiency. The people of the United States are interested in Europe, Asia, and Africa, but not enough to learn even the more generally used languages. A greater isolationism exists in the Soviet Union where the will to power forbids an altruistic internationalism.

But what about the scholars and scientists? Do they not need the languages? Yes, sometimes; and, when they do, they get them up or use them ineptly or abandon a problem that runs into an impenetrable wall of Russian or Japanese—or, for that matter, of German or French, as the universities yield slowly to the unilingual self-sufficiency of America.

American psychology presents a special case, because it is so largely professional and because it has rapidly grown tremendous as compared with the European psychologies. While research may need foreign languages, professional work ordinarily does not, except when it undertakes its own research. Clinical and industrial psychologists seem to have little use for French and German, heretofore the regular concomitants of graduate education. Experimental psychology at present is dominated by research on learning, and Europe does not help out much with that topic. Sensory psychology, psychophysics, physiological psychology need German certainly, though he who can not read German may never know what he is missing. Everybody is busy, 100 per cent busy. If he takes time to learn German and French, what does he take it from? And, if he learns French and needs German, he is no better off. Or, if he is persuaded to learn both French and German and needs

Russian, did the educational system then play him false?

It is said: Why learn a language I would not use? And it is obvious that most of the teachers of graduate students in America, most of the possible father-images for the coming generation of psychologists, do not use French and German in their teaching and research. Can the disciple exceed the master? Yes, but he needs a compelling reason.

When is there a compelling need? The Ph.D. requirements are compelling, but to the student who expects not to use the languages again, whose teachers are not using them, these graduate-school requirements seem to represent an arbitrary authoritarianism based upon defunct values. He should have gotten his basic training in high school and college when young people more readily accept education without questioning its ultimate specific usefulness. The evidence is that not often does an older man get up a new language because his research demands it. Rather he changes his project. His need is not great enough, though it is great enough for an expatriate who comes to a new country to live. The newcomer has to have the vernacular and his age does not prevent him from learning it. Yet age can not be discounted. The older you get, the more proactive inhibitions you have.

Why French and German though? Why not Dutch and Spanish? Above all, why not Russian? That is a matter of the history of scholarship. A thousand years ago Byzantium was the center of the learned world and Greek was the scholarly language. Later the geography of scholarship followed the universities: first Italy, then Paris, then England, then Germany. Latin, having been the language of the Church, became the language of learning in Italy and then throughout the west, until a reaction against it occurred in the early nineteenth century. But Galileo in the seventeenth century wrote in Italian as well as Latin, and more and more during the next two hundred years important scientific works tended to be published in the

vernacular. Italian faded out as the center of scientific activity moved northward; so, when Latin was discarded, French, English, and German were left. The scholars of the small nations, with their own special languages, were obliged more or less to accept this situation and to get their scientific contributions into one of the three accepted languages if they wanted a large audience. This was power linguistics and unfair, but it worked well enough to let learning get ahead marvelously well.

It is too bad that Latin went out. Had it stayed in, with high schools and colleges giving the necessary training in it, with most important learned publication in it, the problem of the internationalization of scholarship would have been solved.

Nowadays we are faced with another reaction away from French and German and toward English or toward Russian, depending on where you live and what your native tongue is. Will French and German retreat behind a partial language barrier as did Latin? Not soon probably, but we need to see the historical picture whole if we are to think wisely about this matter.

So where does wisdom lie right now? On this matter CP wishes to make two points.

A community of scholarship is good for civilization. The scholars and scientists should be able to communicate readily with one another. They lost Latin. They have had until the immediate present French, German, and English. The less populous or less productive nations accepted this inequality. Now the powerful Soviet Union will not and the demand for knowledge of Russian has to be considered. Let us, however, take no step, says CP, to diminish the present degree of community unless a substitute device for securing international comprehension is at hand. Above all let no one advocate a radical diminution of community when his thinking is based on the experience of any mere two or three decades. These cultural changes come slowly and impatience confuses prediction.

CP's other point is that basic training should be kept broad if science is to prosper maximally. It is nonsense to teach a graduate student German just because he is working in psychophysics. He will probably end up twenty years

later working for the VA. It is nonsense to argue that a man who teaches rats to run mazes needs nothing but English for talk. He will probably turn up with Lorenz, the ethologist. Psychology is not yet split up into so many fields that the graduate student can make an irrevocable choice, and CP hopes that this process of fractionation will be retarded as much as possible. Psychologists accept basic research as good, spend their lives in investigations none of which may ever have practical value, for the ostensible reason that basic research yields practical dividends in the long run, and yields them the more surely because it has not aimed as being useful. So you do the research for its own sake, or for various social or

economic motives. It would, indeed, be fortunate if the basic languages could be taken in the same way, as something that it is good to know though the practical use for them is unforeseeable. Being educated is not always a waste of time.



Personality theory is growing and personality theories are multiplying these days. Now Calvin S. Hall and Gardner Lindzey (Gordon Allport flipped a nickel to decide which author's name should come first) are readying a text for graduate students and advanced undergraduates that will report on twenty-three of these theories: Freud, Jung, Adler-Fromm-Horney-Sullivan, Murray,

Lewin, Allport, Goldstein-Angyal-Maslow - Lecky, Kretschmer - Sheldon, Eysenck-Cattell, Dollard-Miller-Sears-Mowrer, Rogers, and Murphy. (The hyphens mean combined in the same chapter.) Hall and Lindzey asked those authors of theories who are living to comment on what had been written about their views. That's a wonderful idea! One theorist—one of the more modest ex-presidents of the APA—even persuaded Hall and Lindzey that he did not own a personality theory, so they left him out after they had written him up. McDougall's out too, and other ancients. Wiley hopes to unveil this gift to teachers of courses on personality early in 1957.

—E. G. B.

## Stop! Look and See

Jurgen Ruesch and Weldon Kees

### Nonverbal Communication: Notes on the Visual Perception of Human Relations

Berkeley: University of California Press, 1956. Pp. 205. \$7.50.

By IAGO GALDSTON

*The New York Academy of Medicine*

**T**HIS avowedly unpretentious work is a most competent and evocative exposition of a much neglected phase of communication—the nonverbal. It is didactic in the treatment of its subject, but it is also, and refreshingly so, polemical in spirit. In effect, it argues that we listen too much and see too little. We have lost the skill to observe and have been seduced and traduced by verbal language. Specifically and categorically the authors demonstrate how much of communication can be effected and how much can be gained in seeing and in comprehending what is observable.

This exposition, as the authors justly anticipated, has an odd effect upon the reader. It is all so very obvious, but not familiar. It is like a recalled memory that one is not quite sure has ever been remembered before. The textual material is supported with seventy-eight photographs, not counting the tail piece—as telling a picture as any.

Verbal communication is neither dis-

paraged nor underestimated, but its unilinear—the authors term it “digital”—character is underscored. Nonverbal communication in contrast is multidimensional and multidirectional (“analogic”) and is generally instantaneous. It deals in *Gestalten*. The point is that verbal communication, devoid of its nonverbal concomitant, is often inadequate and frequently misleading.

“Our verbal digital education is not paralleled by a corresponding regard for training along nonverbal, analogic lines. Thus, we continued to produce . . . more and more narrowly oriented human beings as well as an increasing number of quasi schizophrenics, capable of grappling with the most complicated mathematical and technological problems but with no real understanding of human beings, their emotional expression, or even of gestures—all of which are so necessary for the understanding of speech” (p. 76).

**T**HIS indictment is well drawn up, and is valid. The practicing psychiatrist and analyst are not exempted, and the all-too-brief chapter *Language and Psychopathology* inspires many a query. What, for example, of the noncommunicative therapist who hides behind the north end of a supine patient! And what of those who by training, native predilection, and associational devotion are incapable of and averse to analogic communication? How fares the patient?

The first chapter, eleven pages long,

constitutes an excellent primer for the novice in communication. The second chapter deals with *Biology and Culture* as two determinants of nonverbal communication. It is the poorest of an excellent lot. In spots it reads like a digest condensation of Wells' *History*. It suffers from naive generalizations. The statement, “Italy's contributions to literature, with the exception of Dante, are secondary to its achievements in nonverbal artistic forms,” is open to serious doubt. *Vide* Francesco De Sanctis' *History of Italian Literature*. The generalization, even “from the long range viewpoint,” that “from the high Renaissance to the middle of the nineteenth century the viewpoint from which artists regarded their world and the terms in which they communicated it are . . . relatively unvaried,” will not stand up under critical assessment. What of Pieter Bruegel, El Greco, William Blake, Goya? The theory of abstract painting, Frances Bradshaw Blanshard has shown, is an extreme stage in a movement of thought which began many centuries ago. (See his *Retreat from Likeness in the Theory of Painting*, 1949.)

But these and other points not mentioned here are minor matters. They are distracting, but in no way detract from the value of the work, which is indeed excellent.

The book in its physical characteristics, however, is anything but satisfactory. The printed line measures six inches and is difficult to scan. The type is unfortunate, and the pages are blotched by bold-type accented words and phrases. Most

of the illustrations are too small and are gray in texture. So fine a work deserves a better format, and more competent typography. But then—it's the shoemakers' children who go barefoot.

## Sane Sense for Layman and Psychiatrist

Henry Yellowlees

### To Define True Madness: Common Sense Psychiatry for Lay People

Baltimore: Penguin Books, 1955.  
Pp. ix + 172. \$65.

By ALEX C. SHERRIFFS  
*University of California*

THIS is indeed a surprising little book. It is small in size, unpretentious in price, and popular in title, but it is unexpectedly full of insights and observations which should prove thought-provoking and at times challenging to the advanced student of personality and clinical psychology and to all those who work with the maladjusted. And it *will* be useful to the lay reader.

Unlike the usual book about adjustment for the layman, this is not an effort at bibliotherapy, nor is it 'fascinating' symptomatology presented in a 'fascinating' fashion. The author, a noted British psychiatrist, assumes no medical or psychological knowledge on the part of the reader, but he does assume that the reader has his share of misinformation and bias. He also takes it for granted that his reader is a more intelligent and a more thoughtful person than do most other writers on this subject who address a lay audience.

This reviewer suspects that Dr. Yellowlees is also writing for a second audience, that he is using this book as a vehicle to communicate some important ideas and criticisms to his fellow psychiatrists and to allied professional people. Whereas his calm objectivity is bound to be reassuring to the lay reader, his surgical exploration into the current status of psychiatry, carried out in full public view, must have a disquieting effect on some of his colleagues.

For the layman ("We cannot stop

people talking about psychiatry: cannot we get them to talk sense about it?") there is an excellent presentation of such matters as the concept of the whole person, or normality, and of the relationship of symptom and cause; of the cognitive, affective, and conative disturbances; of the more important mechanisms and dynamisms, and of the sense of inferiority, anxiety, depression, and suicide; of suggestion and hypnosis; and of the relations of medicine and law. The presentation is unusually open, objective, scholarly, and realistic. The author makes clear what is hypothesis, what is fact, and what has turned out to be useful though incompletely understood. Many an author of current texts in abnormal psychology and the psychology of personality could profit by more of Dr. Yellowlees' humility and objectivity.

For the second audience the author has a number of messages. Important among them are those indicated by the following statements: "[Psychiatry] is beyond all doubt passing through a period of decline at present, because it is at the mercy of its amazing technique and its art has evaporated almost to vanishing point." "Many modern psychiatrists find all demands upon their diagnostic and therapeutic abilities satisfied by indulging in some obscure psychological jargon, and finally pressing an electric button or doing a 'blind' surgical operation." "Our present day self-styled psychologists and psychotherapists—some even dare to call themselves psychiatrists—suffer from one essential weakness, namely, the inadequacy of their training." "[Psychoanalysis] believes itself to be the sole repository of psychological truth, and regards every modification, advance, or development as dangerous heresy."

Not all of the author's comments are critical, but many are. He makes his points convincingly, and he has numerous suggestions for remedy. Dr. Yellowlees believes very much in the potential of psychiatry, but he believes that many present day practitioners are preventing psychiatry from achieving its potential.

Those who are called upon from time to time to suggest readings for interested laymen, and who themselves have perspective and a sense of humility about psychology applied, will be comfortable in recommending this little volume.

## Cracking the Assessment Criterion

George G. Stern, Morris I. Stein, and Benjamin S. Bloom

### Methods in Personality Assessment: Human Behavior in Complex Situations

Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1956.  
Pp. 271. \$6.00.

By KENNETH R. HAMMOND  
*University of Colorado*

LIKE earlier books about personality assessment (*Assessment of Men, Prediction of Performance in Clinical Psychology*) this book should have an important effect on what psychologists do, as well as on what they say.

The authors make a competent and valuable effort to dynamite the rock upon which previous assessment programs have foundered—the criterion problem. The steady self-confidence of their attack on this problem is refreshing after recent gloomy pronouncements. ("Assessment in the OSS style has now been proved a failure," said Cronbach, in the 1956 *Annual Review of Psychology*.) Moreover, the results reported in the illustrative research projects are excellent.

The authors put the criterion problem first and resolve it partially by some theoretical discussion of the environment (Murray's *press*), but principally by the arduous procedure of studying the persons doing the ultimate evaluating of the assessees. As they state, "It is the evaluation which is being predicted, rather than the performance." Therefore performance has meaning only "as some evaluative judgment has been placed upon it." This point of view is so sound that the occasional omission of details in its exposition may be overlooked.

WITH the criterion problem as a pivot, four assessment methods are presented. (1) The *analytic* method requires the staff to make a situational analysis and develop a criterion in terms of functional roles described in the terminology (mainly Murray's) of personality theory.



Tests are then selected, conferences held, and predictions made. Unhappily, "it is almost an impossible task to state the principles by which the staff actually sets about predicting how the subject will perceive and react to the press."

(2) The *empirical* method involves no new techniques. (3) The *synthetic* method requires the staff to "synthesize" a hypothetical personality type and predict the consequences when such a type inhabits the criterion environment. The synthetic method allows prediction only when the environment is known to the assessors, but it does not require the intensive study of evaluators as does the *analytic* method, nor does the *synthetic* method require one to make a prediction for every assessee. (4) The *configurational* method consists of transposed (inverse) factor analysis by means of which are discovered personality "models" which provide test specifications for new subjects.

THE book has two faults. Better copy editing would have prevented one. The second fault lies in an Olympian attitude toward tradition and related research. For example, in naming the four methods the authors overlook the traditional methodological distinction between *analytic* and *synthetic*, and the parallelism between *synthetic* and *empirical*. Their distinction among the four methods, though not altogether new (cf. Cronbach, 1949) is valuable, and it is to be hoped lasting; therefore the need for more suitable terminology is urgent. Another example lies in the absence of recognition of other attempts to cope with the criterion problem (e.g., Flanagan's critical incidents, and Thorndike's threefold criterion classification) and of attempts like Edwards' to control test faking. More detailed cognizance of the troubles encountered by others would have enhanced the caliber of the book. For example, current doubts about the value of projective tests seem never to have disturbed these writers. (Why all the research, if we ignore it?) Furthermore, the sporadic, casual references to transactionalism serve no purpose.

These criticisms, however, are but slight dispraise of an important and significant contribution to the methodology of personality assessment.

## Labour Without Joy is Base

Georges Friedmann

### Industrial Society

Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1955. (Somewhat augmented American edition of book published in France in 1947.) Pp. 436. \$6.00.

By MORRIS S. VITELES  
University of Pennsylvania

IN *Erewhon*, published almost a hundred years ago, Samuel Butler graphically described the growing fear of the subordination of man by machines—of "seeing ourselves superseded by our own creatures, till we rank no higher in comparison than [do] the beasts of the field with ourselves." In *Industrial Society*, Friedmann considers this danger from the point of view of a twentieth-century social scientist.

According to Friedmann, specialization of work, accelerated by mechanization, has resulted in the degradation of the worker, by eliminating the need for initiative and planning in his daily work. These effects, he contends, are *not* inevitable and unavoidable sequelae of the expanded use of electrically powered machines which characterizes the 'second industrial revolution.' Such adverse outcomes are the result of a *technicist* approach to the production process by profit-minded industrialists, as expressed in the uncritical and ruthless application of so-called 'scientific' management to the rationalization of work, without regard for the physical and mental welfare of the worker.

Early investigations by physiologists and psychologists yielded principles and procedures for safeguarding the well-being of the worker. These scientists, however, duplicated Taylor's error in viewing man as a single 'factor' in a complex man-machine relationship. They also overlooked the inherent unity of man as a total personality operating in a highly intricate social milieu.

New horizons were opened with the advent of *Gestalt* theory, the *individual psychology* of Adler and the *depth psychology* of William Stern. The anthropologically oriented *Hawthorne Plant* studies revealed the basic significance of social motives and the operation of small group influences within the larger socioeconomic environment of the industrial plant.

These and other investigations underlined the need for integrating the individual in a "collectivity" constituted by the worker, his co-workers, and the industrial organization, and extending also into the broad socioeconomic milieu.

ACCORDING to Friedmann, in recognizing the influence of the broad social structure, industrial psychology both "avowed its impotence in this field" and "emerges into sociology." Consideration of social forces has, furthermore, demonstrated the necessity for close cooperation among all the sciences which deal with man in solving the human problems of an industrial civilization.

Such emphasis on the interdisciplinary approach is the 'hallmark' of *Industrial Society*. Published originally in 1947, the book 'looks ahead,' as did contemporaneous publications by such other social scientists as Mayo and Lewin. Furthermore, the breadth of historical perspective and philosophical orientation enrich the value of the book as a relatively early contribution to the social study of man-machine relationships.

Strength in the latter respects does not, however, eliminate a central weakness in the American edition, published in 1955, an edition which has not been sufficiently augmented to deal with the significant and even brilliant research contributions during the past fifteen years. Certainly, the American reader can turn to the reviewer's *Motivation and Morale in Industry*, Stagner's *Psychology of Industrial Conflict*, and Whyte's *Money and Motivation* for descriptions of recent studies and for the consideration of current theory, which are absent from Friedmann's work. Nevertheless, these and other significant omissions detract from the fullness and luster of *Industrial Society*.

By way of slight compensation, Fried-



GEORGES FRIEDMANN

mann describes European employee participation programs which are not well known in this country. Among these is the plan followed in the *Bat'a Plant*, at Zin, Czechoslovakia, which promotes a limited degree of consultation in an essentially "paternalistic" framework. Workers' productive cooperatives in France have expanded the scope of collaboration to include democratic collective management, and also the distribution of profits on the basis of the individual's fulfillment of social responsibilities as well as of production quotas.

**F**RIEDMANN accepts the view that such opportunities for the display of initiative and participation in planning, as well as other steps, can help raise production, job satisfaction, and morale. He pleads, in addition, for the expansion of the horizons of the social sciences to include the goal of providing the worker with a positive feeling of "joy in work" which appears only when the worker can influence the *means* as well as the *ends* of his achievement. "Joy in work," he insists, can be achieved only in a social structure that provides "multivalent" training—characterized by the development of generalized skill, an appreciation of technology, and a humanistic background which can enrich the use of leisure time, as well as closer ego involvement in even specialized work.

Much of the underlying discussion here applies to the French educational system and has limited application to the American scene. Problems arising from individual differences and the conditions under which transfer of training can take place are treated lightly. Never-

theless, the discussion has significant import in considering the increased need for skilled workers which arises as automation is accelerated, and also the necessity for a program of retraining workers to avoid unnecessary unemployment in a period of transition.

In general, Friedmann's discussion of automation deserves particular attention by the reader. Consideration of his treatment of this and other issues must, nevertheless, take into account value judgments which appear in his discussion of an industrial society. For example, he agrees with Wiener (*The Human Use of Human Beings*) that the "machine's danger to society is not from the machine itself but from what man makes of it." Wiener, however, takes the position that "the devil whom the scientist is fighting is the devil of confusion, not of wilful malice." By contrast, Friedmann appears to see in the "private" profit system and in the industrialist's contempt for the working masses the prime sources of the evil of mechanization.

This is not to say that Friedman consistently casts the employer or management in the role of the villain. Nevertheless, he stresses the view that 'class-consciousness' and the absence of an essential community of interest between employers and workers set practical limits to management's efforts in integrating the worker into the firm. Advances in the direction of profit-sharing and participation in management represent to him a retreat on the part of the capitalistic system and the "inter-penetration by another system and other institutions which are in the process of formation."

**F**RIEDMANN does not identify the "other system," but its identity is perhaps revealed in his assertion that rationalization in a broad sense is a road to socialism. It may well be that this is the sense in which he conceives the volume as "showing in what direction a humanism anxious to change *effectively* the conditions of human life must orient its course and its hopes."



*Certainty generally is illusion, and repose is not the destiny of man.*

—OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES

## Bits about Bits

Henry Quastler (Ed.)

### Information Theory in Psychology

Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1956.  
Pp. x + 436. \$6.00.

By EDWIN B. NEWMAN  
*Harvard University*

**T**HIS is a book about information theory. It is also a book about psychology—at least some parts of psychology. It reports on a conference at the University of Illinois in the summer of 1954 that counted among its participants a large share of those psychologists who know about information theory. The conference must have been a reasonably good one, as conferences go.

The conference started off with some suitably hortatory remarks on the rational nonapplication of information measures. This left people free not to apply such measures if they preferred, and roughly 40 per cent got along quite well without.

A section of the book is given over to technical problems of the mathematics of information measures. In it Miller, and Rogers and Green, contribute some highly useful information on sampling distributions. The distributions are limited to what may be thought of as 'null' cases but are highly useful within this limitation. Quastler describes some ingenious methods of approximating information measures where exact answers are difficult to obtain. McGill presents, all too briefly, his general structure for multivariate analysis. There is just enough here to suggest how powerful this generalization may be, and even the user of the conventional analysis of variance understands his tools much better if he appreciates the isomorphism of the information and variances measures. These few pages are the most exciting part of the book.

The psychological half of the discussion does not hold up so well. The papers presented are far from a balanced representation of the areas in which information measures have been applied, and rather few of the reports contain much that is new. This book serves neither as a review of the field nor as a report of research.

Fitts sums up quite neatly his work on stimulus-response compatibility. Senders reports what happens when the pointer on a scale repeats roughly the same information each time it is read. Quastler tells how he tried to test 'channel-capacity' with random music. The task involves playing or typing as fast as one can, with the complexity of the task varied from trial to trial. Quastler's subjects, at 20 bits per second, fall short of Licklider's best, who reached perhaps 35 bits per second on quite tricky tests. Fritz and Grier tell us what airplane pilots say when they talk, and that turns out to be not much. Hake tackles the problem of subjective probability, asking subjects for direct estimates. He does not make clear how the presumed bias in a priori probability modifies the way in which one calculates transmitted information.

A SIGNIFICANT portion of the book is taken up with papers that have little to do with psychology and even less with information theory. One of them attempts to develop a concept of psychological time, and a second deals with signal detection. The talk is pitifully unsophisticated. Such speculative chit-chat may be all right around the conference table but there are canons of scholarly excellence that should be met before committing conversation to cold print.

One other passing comment: The typography of this book is poor for something between hard covers and at this price. The book is printed by offset from typescript. It uses a most unfortunate type face (often an "rn" cannot be distinguished from an "m," e.g., p. vi). It is poorly proofread ("Poebal" for "Foveal," p. 184). The attempt to reproduce figures that were prepared for some different method of publication is almost disastrous (pp. 224f.). Good printing does not just happen.

To sum up quite briefly, this is a book that experts in the field of information theory will need to have for their shelves if their source material is to be complete. It may be scanned with profit by the dilettante.

• • •

## Security vs. Freedom

Association of the Bar of the City of New York

### Report of the Special Committee on the Federal Loyalty-Security Program

New York: Dodd, Mead, 1956. Pp. xxvi + 301. \$5.00.

By EDITH L. ANNIN  
*Harvard University*

THE New York City Bar Association has issued the Report of its Special Committee on the Federal Loyalty-Security Program. The Committee's investigations have been going on for over a year under a grant from the Fund for the Republic, with Dudley Bonsal as Chairman and Elliott Cheatham as Research Director. The report seems to be a thorough, competent job whose main thesis is that, while the United States must have an effective loyalty-security program in the current state of world affairs, the present one needs considerable revision, particularly in the direction of a better protection of constitutional rights and individual freedoms.

This is not a source book for the social psychologist; the report does not concern itself with the psychological effects of loyalty-security programs nor cite the kind of material presented in the Yarmolinsky case studies. On the administrative and legal side, however, the Committee does not stop with discussing problems and describing defects. It goes on to give a set of recommendations which add up to a completely revised "personnel and information security" system, centered in the Executive Office of the President with a responsible Director to head it up, and devised to meet most of the major criticisms of the present system. For instance, the report advises giving security officers broad, thorough training courses; abolishing or drastically revising the Attorney General's list, which has been used in an indiscriminating and unfair way; continuing the salaries of suspended employees since most are eventually cleared; protecting the anonymity of informants only where

absolutely necessary, and making sure that any such information is very carefully evaluated before it is used as evidence. Another of the Committee's recommendations has already been carried out: before this report was published, the Supreme Court decided in *Cole v. Young* that security procedures apply only to 'sensitive' positions, a decision which Congress has not yet succeeded in nullifying. Is this a hopeful sign, or will the report come up against the same kind of treatment that another Fund-for-the-Republic project, the survey of blacklisting in the entertainment field, has met with from Representative Walter's committee?

## Rough Timbers for Motivational Theory

James Olds

### The Growth and Structure of Motives: Psychological Studies in the Theory of Action

Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1956. Pp. 277. \$5.00.

By FRANCIS W. IRWIN  
*University of Pennsylvania*

IN THIS collection of papers the author wrestles enthusiastically with some very difficult problems. There are exciting moments and quite a few feats of skill. Nevertheless it is doubtful whether the public should have been invited to buy tickets. No common aim or theme unites the four principal essays and none of them is ready to stand alone. The discussion shifts abruptly between looseness and rigor and passes with little preparation from one level of abstraction to another. There are definitions that do not define, criteria too vague for application, and arguments too imperfectly worked through to be evaluated. We seem to be present at an improvisation; and when the author says that, in the time between writing and publication, he has arrived at a "slightly changed conception of the framework in which the material of this book may prove fruitful," we are surprised only by the apparent understatement. It is a pity that the ideas were not withheld until they were more mature.

The first paper deals with "secondary



reinforcement" (more accurately, 'goal attractiveness' or 'positive valence'), and argues that secondary goal objects may acquire both autonomous or intrinsic and instrumental values. Ingenious interpretations of experimental data lead to the specification of variables supposed to determine the growth and decay of the two sorts of value; but, welcome as they would be to some psychologists, neither an adequate criterion for the existence of acquired intrinsic value nor a convincing demonstration of the necessity of the concept is provided.

The essay on "a limited theory of reward" aspires toward nothing less than the solution of the most fundamental questions of motivation, action, and learning. As a major step in achieving this, Hebb's cell assemblies, after some reinterpretation, are endowed with positive and negative "motive forces," forms of facilitation that flow backward along associational chains instead of forward like "stimulation." The conception is novel, but it is hard to tell how seriously to take it. Olds does not wish his theory to be judged by predictions derived from it but believes that "its importance lies in the fact that it systematizes available material concerning learned motivation in such a fashion as to suggest measurements and variables." This attitude seems to remove the theory from the sphere of useful discussion.

**T**HE last two essays are working papers that interpret the mechanisms of the limited theory of reward in the framework of a "general theory of action systems." After he has read 140 pages of the book, the reader is informed that, to understand the rest, he must acquaint himself with an earlier volume of working papers by Parsons, Bales, and Shils (1953). The prospect is not enticing, for the author says only too truly of his final chapter, "It is a sad fact that the obvious assertions of the introductory section will probably seem tedious; the systematic formulations which come later will probably seem incomprehensible." In such a case, would it not have been better to reserve the material for private circulation among those engaged in the 'general theory' enterprise?

## Holt 1956 Texts in Psychology

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B. R. Bugelski

Providing a realistic appraisal of the current status of learning theory, the author emphasizes the correlated area of motivation.

**HENRY HOLT AND COMPANY**

383 MADISON AVE. NEW YORK 17, N. Y.

## An Orphaned Essay on Risk

John Cohen and Mark Hansel

### Risk and Gambling: A Study of Subjective Probability

New York: Philosophical Library, 1956. Pp. x + 153. \$3.50.

By WARD EDWARDS

*Air Force Personnel and Training  
Research Center, Lackland Air  
Force Base, San Antonio, Texas*

THIS little book reports the results of a number of experiments about subjective judgments of probability, most of which use children as subjects. Its authors are a professor of psychology and a lecturer in psychology at the University of Manchester, England. They say that their intended audience is "all those who have occasion to fill in football pool coupons or cross a road . . . gamblers, punters and professional risk-takers, . . . teachers, . . . also those interested in themselves or their fellows." They have therefore kept "technical jargon and statistical mystification" to a minimum.

The book starts firmly off on the wrong foot by saying: "With the notable exception of [a] book by Piaget and Inhelder, a literature on the subject-matter of this book hardly exists." This preposterous statement indicates that the authors have never heard of the theory of games, utility theory, decision theory, and similar fields. The content of the book, moreover, confirms their lack of familiarity with these literatures. (About 500 relevant articles and books in these areas have been published since 1947, of which at least 100 are directly relevant to Cohen and Hansel's topic and have publication dates earlier than that of their preface.) Nor is their unfamiliarity with the literature of their topic the result of insularism. They ignore the work of Shackle, Meredith, Robertson, Stone, and other British economists and psychologists who have published on these matters as firmly as they do the much larger American literature.

The authors report a number of experiments of varying degrees of interest, experiments concerned with such topics as whether subjective probabilities add up to one, the gambler's fallacy, the

quantitative interpretation of words like *nearly always* and *probably*, and the relation between repetitions of a risky event and predictions of the result of further repetitions. In keeping with Cohen and Hansel's intent to avoid "technical jargon and statistical mystification," none of their experiments are reported in enough detail to figure out exactly what was done or what happened. This is quite a feat for a book that contains 24 tables of results. Cohen and Hansel mention that some of their experiments are more fully reported in technical journals, yet they give no references to help the frustrated reader. Of course they report no statistics other than descriptive ones—but they do use the terms *mean*, *median*, and *N* (for total number of cases) without definition or explanation.

This book is exactly what you would expect it to be in view of the ignorance of the relevant literature displayed by its authors. In spots it is clever, imaginative, and highly original. For instance, the authors present some quite suggestive data about what they call "levels of risk-taking," which is the idea, often speculated about in the literature, that there is a certain minimum subjective probability level, consistent over many situations for a given individual, a level below which the individual is unwilling to gamble. Most of these experiments suffer, however, from faults which have appeared and been dealt with in the research of others, and most of the theories are old, familiar, and a little tired.

## Retarded Children

Herta Loewy

### Training the Backward Child

New York: Philosophical Library, 1956. Pp. 166. \$3.75.

By G. ORVILLE JOHNSON

*Syracuse University*

THIS volume is a follow-up or extension of an earlier book by the same author, entitled *The Retarded Child*. The two volumes contain views, attitudes, and recommendations of Herta Loewy, apparently derived largely from the observations and experiences in conducting a small private

school for retarded children in London, England.

The present publication is divided into a large number of very short chapters, grouped under three specific headings and one general one. The specific areas discussed are the social, educational, and physical aspects of a training program for backward children—a group more commonly referred to as the severely retarded or trainable in the United States.

Under the general heading of *Social*, the author has included such chapters *The Effect on Parenthood of Having a Backward Child*, *The Effect of the Parent on the Backward Child*, *Welding the Child into the Family Pattern*, *Grandparents and the Backward Child*. The content consists of opinions, personal experiences, and discussions concerning such subjects as "The protective instinct in the mother . . ." "The maternal instinct being strong as it is, . . ." and "One of the instinctive fears of many backward children is the onus of responsibility called for in solo action." One is also impressed with the almost continuous use of the personal pronoun *I* instead of the more impersonal approach customary in professional writing.

A great deal of space is devoted to medical care, need for medical treatment, and importance of diet. Examples of diet for acidity, undernourishment, acute constipation, obesity, and digestive troubles caused by chewing difficulties (diets differing for winter and summer) are included. Despite the repeated emphasis upon medical care and treatment, however, nowhere is it indicated what this treatment might include or what specific results could be expected. The author remarks, in this respect, that "the homeopath can do much to help the backward child, so can the osteopath and the chiropractor."

The reader will also be impressed by such naive and unscientific conceptions as "... habits are inherited as well as imitated . . ." "She was, alas, an epileptic and this made her behavior difficult . . ." and "Speaking generally, backward children are more prone to temper than normal children."

The section of the volume concerned with *Education* reads very much like similar publications on the market written for lay consumption by relatively

untrained persons. Little if anything has been added to the general knowledge of methods used with the trainable child. The reader with a sound psychological background and familiarity with professional literature will readily recognize the expression and expansion of many concepts not accepted today.

The reviewer would not recommend *Training the Backward Child* for reading by either the professional or lay person interested or personally involved in the problems of mental retardation.

## Inclinata Resurget

Günther Mühle

### Entwicklungspsychologie des zeichnerischen Gestaltens

München: Johann Ambrosius Barth, 1955. Pp. viii + 162. DM 24.00.

By ANITA P. RIESS  
University of Bridgeport

**T**HIS BOOK offers more than its title suggests. Besides being a study of a particular problem in the field of genetic psychology (the development of representation in children's drawings), it propounds a new theory of mental development. Furthermore, it attempts to work out the fundamentals of a theory of formative graphic art. Related theories of the past forty or fifty years, most of them couched in their special terminology, are discussed and either accepted or rejected. If the reader is at first overcome by this abundance of information, he will find it rewarding in the end provided he has had the patience to unravel the various strands.

In respect of mental development in general, the author repudiates as inadequate the familiar concepts of growth and maturation, differentiation and integration, and such genetic models as continuous phases, steps, or layers. In his view, a functional context, rather than a predisposition unfolding out of itself, determines progressive changes in the formative process. There is no linear growth, but an epigenetic one, which is dependent on restructuring at essential points. The spiral comes to mind as a symbol of this development: the same functions, in the same sequence, occur, but each time at a

higher level, following an impetus from the outside—*inclinata resurget*, in reverting it rises. How the author attacks the difficult problems concerning these transitions to higher levels is the most interesting and significant part of his book.

Children's drawings, the author contends, are different in kind, not in degree, from works of art, even of primitive art. For a child, representation is not an end in itself, but is one of his ways of coming to terms with reality. From observation and analysis of the functions at play in the course of the child's development, starting from his first scribbles and ending with representations of objects and situations, the author finds telling arguments against Rudolf Arnheim's assumption that a "perceptual abstraction" is at work in the creative process, and against numerous fallacies in Gustaf Britsch's intellectualistic interpretation. He follows the underlying psychological processes from the child's pure enjoyment of rhythmical movement through the temporary fixation of pictorial signs or schemata which are only incidentally visual to the appearance of unstructured diffuse qualities (*Anmutungsqualitäten*) that express the 'feel' of things. He maintains that these will lose their physiognomic valence and become primarily representative qualities only at the last stage.

The crucial point in the author's conception of the creative process is his idea



PORTRAIT OF A GIRL WITH A SELF-PORTRAIT  
(G. F. Caroto: in the museum at Verona)

that an inner source sustains the fluidity of this process and provides those potentialities which finally lead to true representation. Here even the German language, despite the freedom it allows for the coining of novel composite words, fails the author, and his recourse is to Wilhelm Betz's artificial term *schehm*, which is derived from *schema* but supposed to denote a less rigid structure. The reader may feel that the difficulty here is not solely a question of semantics, but an indication of the fact that a vital part of the problem has been left unsolved. Turning to the "Portrait of a Girl with Self-Portrait" opposite the title page, he may discover in it the secret, still safely and intriguingly ensconced behind the smile of this little Mona Lisa.

## Pictures Are Not All

Wendell J. S. Krieg

### Brain Mechanisms in Diachrome

Evanston: Brain Books, 1955.  
Pp. xv + 188.

By DONALD R. MEYER  
The Ohio State University

**O**NE who is faced with the problem of presenting the major facts and principles of neuroanatomy in fewer hours than the task requires finds but little aid and comfort in the way of suitable texts. As such books go, this one is short, though its brevity is somewhat deceptive. Its outstanding feature is a set of charts, in color and on cellophane, which form a series through the human brain commencing at the median plane. These have the elegance for which Krieg is justly famous; black and white charts of the brain of the rat, included as a second supplement, are drab in comparison.

The book itself is richly illustrated, but much of it is meant to serve as a guide to the accompanying reconstructions. Its approach is comparative, developmental and functional, as it should be; the writing is clear and in obvious good humor. A greater share of the available space is devoted to the cerebral hemispheres than in any comparable book. In all of these respects, the work is most commendable and



deserves consideration as a text for courses in physiological psychology.

There are, however, many features which limit its general usefulness. Recent advances in theory of the central nervous system have had but little impact upon it; outmoded concepts—the resonance theory of cochlear mechanics for one—are presented as authoritative. We are told that the organization of the brain stem permits only reflex reactions, that ability to learn is uniquely related to the cerebral cortex. The bird, its prowess as a bar-presser notwithstanding, is doomed by this author to stereotyped activities.

Such interpretations interfere with current attempts to rehabilitate the field of psychoneurology and do not provide the proper foundations for the adduction of more closely reasoned views. While the book teaches much, much of that much will have to be untaught.

### **Fear of Failure and High Places**

**Harold Basowitz, Harold Persky, Sheldon J. Korchin, and Roy R. Grinker**

#### **Anxiety and Stress: An Interdisciplinary Study of a Life Situation**

New York: McGraw-Hill, 1955.  
Pp. xv + 320. \$8.00.

By **STANLEY H. KING**  
*Graduate School of Public Health,  
University of Pittsburgh*

**P**ARATROOP training provided the setting for this interdisciplinary study of anxiety and associated biochemical reactions. In it was the hope that such a situation would produce measurable amounts of anxiety with concomitant changes in certain biochemical indices. In many ways this hope was not realized for one index established in earlier research as a correlate of free anxiety, excretion of hippuric acid, showed no distinct change during stress. In general, the anxiety was at a lower level, less intense and more temporary than had been expected. In addition, the anxiety was associated with concern about failure rather than injury or death.

These conclusions do not detract from the importance of this work. It comes at a time when there is increasing emphasis on delineating the relationships among certain emotional states and certain kinds of bodily function. It is, moreover, of real value in contributing further to knowledge in this area, especially in presenting evidence for a hierarchy of stress sensitivity among biochemical variables. We must wait on future research to confirm this series and then study its relationship to the psychological continuum of anxiety.

One sobering implication of the study is the difficulty of research when stress is not severe. It is relatively easy to find striking associations between events in such overwhelming situations as combat, but not easy in less intense situations, even in jumping from an airplane. Yet many of the stresses of life that exact a high rate of attrition may be even less intense, though long continued.

One interesting finding was what the authors call the *end phenomenon*. In essence this phenomenon is characterized by a sharp increase in measures of anxiety some time after the pressure of the stress-event had ended—in this case after graduation from paratroop training. At the same time perceptual adequacy as measured by tachistoscopic closure scores diminished sharply. The authors suggest that this result may be due to lowered defenses once the threat is passed.

It is unfortunate that the authors confined themselves to anxiety and did not also measure anger. As they describe the paratroop training situation, it involves unusually strict discipline and continual frustration, a complex that could be productive of aggression as well as failure anxiety. Indeed one might expect that aggression would be the basic response in many subjects. By limiting their investigation to anxiety the authors may have missed data that would be valuable in understanding the psychological hierarchy of stress responses, including the end phenomenon.

Much of the book makes for slow reading. There are so many experimental groups, biochemical measures, and psychological measures that the reader has to stop at frequent intervals and sort things out in his mind. In addition some of the experimental groups are so small that one is skeptical of the contribution they

make. It is to the authors' credit in this situation that they are cautious about the conclusions they draw, especially those in support of their original hypotheses. They make a discreet approach to intriguing data.

### **New Hypotheses About Job Satisfaction**

**A. Zaleznik**

#### **Worker Satisfaction and Development: A Case Study of Work and Social Behavior in a Factory Group**

Boston: Division of Research, Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University, 1956.  
Pp. xiii + 148. \$2.00.

By **JOSEPH WEITZ**  
*Life Insurance Agency Management Association*

**T**HIS is a story of a work group. It is very well told and unfolds like a novel. You get to meet Axle, the isolate, Ron, the informal leader, Len, the deviant, and several other members of the group. As Roethlisberger points out in the foreword, the author observed this machine-shop group in order to arrive at fruitful hypotheses concerning group organization and productivity. It is a rather loose look at the group structure but presents what appears to be a good clinical picture. The foreword, in effect, excuses the lack of scientific rigor on the basis that researchers in this area should worry more about what questions to ask rather than how to refine the research technique. This reviewer is in sympathy with this position.

The main criticism of this case study is that the reader may question some assumptions that are stated as fact. The author has provided a number of hypotheses that are very interesting, especially the one concerning the relationship between leadership and consistency of status. By consistency of status Zaleznik means that an individual obtains the same ranking within a group on a number of variables such as seniority, age, education, and ethnicity. He raises the

question of whether or not in social activities in a work group, leadership positions tend toward individuals whose status is most consistent.

As a case study of a work group, the material is clearly and interestingly presented. Some of the explanations of the dynamics of the situation seem, however, too pat without verification. Frequently the explanations are given not as suggested possibilities but as 'truths.' Perhaps the reader should have been forewarned by Roethlisberger's foreword that this would occur.

Anyone working in the area of job satisfaction and leadership would do well to read this book for stimulating ideas. It is hoped that the author will test some of his hypotheses under conditions which are reproducible and permit cross-validation.

## Speaking of Sensation

U. S. Department of the Navy,  
Office of Naval Research, Physiological Psychology Branch

### Symposium on Physiological Psychology

(Proceedings of a Symposium held at the School of Aviation Medicine, U. S. Naval Air Station, Pensacola, Fla., 10-11 March 1955.) Washington, D. C.: Office of Naval Research, U. S. Department of the Navy [1956]. (ONR Symposium Report ACR-1.) Pp. 302.

By HAROLD W. HAKE  
*University of Illinois*

HERE is a record of the proceedings of a symposium held in Pensacola, Florida, during March, 1955, arranged and supported by the Physiological Psychology Branch of the Office of Naval Research. The papers presented had been planned to represent an ambitious sequence of topics running from the nature of the stimulus, through information about several peripheral sense organs, and finally on to the higher levels of sensory integration. The report as published does indeed represent this spectrum of interests, although the usual attenuation exists at the upper

end. Information about the higher levels was pretty much restricted to functions of the sensory projection areas of the cortex.

This restriction appears to be less an oversight in planning the conference than the result of an agreeable enthusiasm on the second day of the meetings which led speakers away from their scheduled reports. Apparently in response to interest in the cortex Professor Ades abandoned his planned report on the cerebellum entirely, in favor of a discussion of the auditory cortex. (He had nevertheless the foresight to bring slides.)

We may judge from introductory remarks that the motivation for the symposium was the familiar one to enable contract researchers with a common interest to meet and rub their ideas together. The speakers were encouraged to report their most provocative findings and thinking without the usual restrictions imposed by the need to buttress every statement factually or to identify each notion historically. Whether or not this intention was realized here any more than in other symposia still fresh in memory cannot be judged. Some of the discussion which occurred has been carefully preserved, but the context and feeling are missing, so that the record communicates little to the reader.

The papers themselves seem to be rigorous and supported in true journal style. The little speculation that is in them is not likely to ruffle the thin hair of the most sensitive of journal editors. Thus the report is as informative (and as interesting to read) as any current volume of a scientific journal in this area of interest.

As the report had a limited circulation, this review will call it to the attention of readers who were not aware of its existence. The volume provides an important review of current research on taste, cutaneous sensitivity, vision (especially an invited description of the opponent-colors theory), somatic responses to stimulation, and audition. Especially to be recommended is a careful look at the doctrine of the cortical dendrite as described by Bishop, a view that implies the abandonment of our notions about all-or-none transmission in the cortex.

## Ocular Dioptrics

Glenn A. Fry

### Blur of the Retinal Image (Graduate School Monographs, Contributions in Physiological Optics, No. 1.)

Columbus: The Ohio State University Press, 1955. Pp. 120.

By LORRIN A. RIGGS  
*Brown University*

THIS is a monograph that has, as its major objective, an approximate description of the images formed on the retina by a point, a line, and a border between adjacent fields of differing brightness. This objective is achieved by an application and extension of the concepts developed by Helmholtz, Hartridge, Byram, and others. The chief value of the work appears to lie in the specific techniques that it presents for estimating the extent of blur under typical conditions of observation.

The tone of the book is that of an engineering handbook. The general description of blur is based on the physical principles of diffraction and the various optical aberrations as applied to the structure of the eye. Various approximations are introduced, however, to simplify the actual computations. Among these are the use of the familiar Gaussian probability function to give a convenient approximation to the gradient of retinal illuminance surrounding the geometrical image of a point or a line; the use of a reduced eye rather than a schematic eye in many of the calculations; and the assumptions, in many cases, that such factors as chromatic dispersion or involuntary eye movements are of minor importance.

This is not a guidebook for the uninitiated. It is rather a highly condensed outline that an expert might use as a set of notes on which to base a series of lectures in applied optics. Alternatively, it might well be used by physicists, optometrists, ophthalmologists, and others whose work leads them to analyze the effects of optical aids upon the distinctness of the retinal image. In the field of visual research it has two major contributions to offer: first, a survey of the factors that are known to influence

blur of the retinal image, and second, a set of estimates of blur against which to compare the importance of other factors in contour vision, such as coarseness of the receptor mosaic and degree of neural interaction.



## The Seventh Age

Oscar J. Kaplan (Ed.)

### Mental Disorders in Later Life (Second ed.)

Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press; London: Oxford University Press, 1956. Pp. ix + 508. \$7.50.

By ROBERT W. KLEEMEIER  
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OSCAR KAPLAN characterized the first edition of this volume as "a collection of essays selected to indicate the level of achievement in this area." The present edition, although expanded to a considerable degree, remains unaltered in this respect. Since approximately one quarter of the chapters show no apparent change from the original publication, the revision cannot be considered complete. Two new chapters have been added, however. One is Franz Kallmann's discussion of genetic aspects of mental disorders in later life; and the other, by Prout, Allen, and Hamilton, deals with electric-shock therapy. Clive McCay's delightful paper on nutrition replaces Wexberg's chapter in the old edition, and adds greatly to the usefulness of the book.

There is no dominant style running throughout the nineteen separate contributions. Thus Shock's chapter on physiology and Jones and Kaplan's chapter on psychology are comprehensive surveys of the literature, while Hanfmann's chapter on the older mental patient is essentially the report of a single study carried out some twenty years ago. Since the latter is primarily an analysis of interviews with forty-six long-term patients, the emphasis given this material is disproportionate in comparison, say, to Shock's broad coverage of the physiological aspects of aging which utilizes some 350 bibliographic items.

Predominately a medical book, its major emphasis is directed toward the description of disease, etiology, and treatment. It is to the editor's credit that the twenty-one contributors have managed to write on closely related subjects with a minimum of overlap and a maximum of agreement. His success in this respect is not, however, complete. For example, Robinson insists that crucial to the diagnosis of arteriosclerotic psychoses is evidence of vascular occlusion as indicated by paralysis or anesthesia of a cerebral type. Rothschild, on the other hand, dealing with the same subject, demands no such diagnostic criterion. Robinson is also inconsistent with Rockwell in his insistence that sedatives should not be given to the older patient, for Rockwell says they are particularly useful for the fearful, anxiety-ridden, aged person.

The psychologist who deals with the normal aged should become familiar with clinical chapters of this book. Certainly that would help him in developing the keen perception necessary to distinguish between normal and abnormal behavior in this age period. In no other group are we perhaps so willing to accept clear-cut psychotic symptoms simply as manifestations of normal change. Similarly in no group other than the aged do we accept with such composure the seeming irreversibility of the mental disease process. Yet in many instances its course can be altered favorably.

Unquestionably this volume is an exceedingly valuable collection of papers and is integrated in a most useful way. Nevertheless improvement could be achieved in subsequent editions by persuading all contributors to bring their work completely up to date, by improving the subject-matter index, and by some judicious pruning of adventitious chapters and materials.



*The faculty of doubting is rare among men. A few choice spirits carry the germ of it in them, but these do not develop without training.*

—ANATOLE FRANCE



## The Psyche in the Religious Milieu

R. S. Lee

### Psychology and Worship

New York: Philosophical Library, 1956. Pp. 110. \$3.75.

By PRUDENCE B. GERBERG  
*Wilson Memorial Hospital,  
Binghamton, N. Y.*

THIS little volume is an excellent book for persons concerned with counseling or psychotherapy in a religious milieu. Those who do not accept a belief in God will not derive much from the book, although the author's argument will probably hold their interest. He attempts to divorce his belief from his logic, but acceptance of the Christian faith by the reader is assumed.

Dr. Lee denies that religious feeling described by a patient must necessarily be a defense mechanism. The book sets forth briefly the sublimating aspects of worship. It states unequivocally that man's ultimate aim is God and weaves Freudian personality theory into the concept.

The author distinguishes carefully between those questions which are relevant to psychology and those which can only be posited by theology or metaphysics. Unfortunately, when discussing prayer, he attempts to give a psychological answer to the question of how prayer becomes efficacious, a matter which lies outside the realm of psychology, he thinks. His account becomes involved for the same reason when he concludes his exposition of the psychological meaning of Holy Communion.

The relationship of the Holy Communion to Totemism, the meaning of prayer to personality, religious training of children, and inability to develop a mature personality in isolation are all touched upon. The text is based upon lectures delivered at the invitation of the Burroughs Memorial Lectureship of the University of Leeds, and thus the book is provocatively written. It should give assurance to psychologists who participate in some form of Christian worship; it answers many of the criticisms leveled against belief in God by those who do not.



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## THE STRUCTURE OF THE EGO

**LOVELL LANGSTROTH**

Otto Rank's theory of the origin of restraint in man's psyche has received new weight from the remarkable parallels suggested by modern studies in brain function. Dr. Langstroth, a practising therapist, synthesizes the findings and argues cogently and forcefully that the evidence both of the laboratory and clinical practice tends to place man's ethical and moral responsibility squarely within himself and outside the realm of historically adduced supernatural forces. \$4.50

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**OLIVER E. BYRD**

A compact source of information on all aspects of family life, this book presents four hundred condensations of carefully selected articles and reports representing the research and experience of a decade. Prepared under the auspices of the American Social Hygiene Association, the book covers thirteen major areas of experience affecting family life: Courtship, Marriage, Pregnancy, Childbirth, Infancy, Childhood, Normal Adolescence, Juvenile Delinquency, Older Members of the Family, The Family as a Unit, Family Health, Broken Homes, and Community Relationships. \$7.50

## STUTTERING

**EUGENE F. HAHN**

Second Revision Prepared by ELISE S. HAHN. Just off the press, this completely revised edition of a now standard work that first appeared in 1943 presents summaries of the most significant theories and therapies on stuttering to be advanced by American and European speech pathologists. "Should be required reading for all who are interested in the stutterer's problem."—*Journal of the American Medical Association* in a review of the First Edition. \$4.00

## EDUCATION AND ANTHROPOLOGY

**GEORGE D. SPINDLER, Editor**

A genuinely interdisciplinary approach to some of the broad social questions confronting the social scientist: What forces hinder intercultural understanding? The constant sense of crisis in the modern world—fact or myth? This book collects twenty-two articles and discussions by leading educators and anthropologists and includes summaries of the symposium by Margaret Mead and Lawrence K. Frank. \$5.50

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# FILMS

By ADOLPH MANOIL, Editor

## Childhood

*In this issue CP continues the reviews on Child Psychology begun in October, and presents reviews on the Psychology of Adolescence, Mental Health, Social and Educational Psychology, Sensation, Safety Education, and Smoking.*

### And So They Grow

Written by Ralph Schoolman. Produced by Campus Film Productions for Play School Association. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white or color, 28 min., 1955. Available through Campus Film Productions, 14 East 53rd St., New York 22, N. Y. \$75.00, rental \$6.00; color, \$200.00, rental \$10.00.

Characteristic activities of a group of 9-year-olds (8 girls and 13 boys) within a year-round play program are clearly shown. The film was made at P.S. 125, Manhattan, N. Y. C. Various film sequences illustrate outdoor and indoor play, painting, building, use of tools, cooperative and individual activities, making puppets, reading, eating, as well as general and individual behavior within the group. The film emphasizes the value of a permissive atmosphere with clear understanding of the needs of the child, and the importance of the democratic organization of the group with free participation of all its members is also stressed. The leader acts as a participant observer and unobtrusive guide to the needs of the children.

This is a documentary film that illustrates the function of play in the individual and social development of the child. It could be used profitably with classes in child psychology and with lay audiences. The film provides good illustrations for a detailed analysis of (1) the role of play activities in the development of the child, (2) the nature of children's groups and characteristic interaction processes, (3) individual differences, (4) the role of the leader, and (5) the play program within the community.

A discussion guide with suggestions for use is provided with the film.

### Don't Be Angry

Rose H. Alschuler, collaborator. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white or color, sound, 12 min., 1953. Available through Encyclopedia Britannica Films, 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Ill., and other distributors. \$50.00; color \$100.00.

Various frustrating situations resulting in anger as experienced by middle-grade boys and girls, are clearly presented.

The film illustrates through common occurrences the onset of anger, its characteristic manifestations, and especially its unpleasant effects.

An animation sequence demonstrates graphically, at the level of the junior high-school student, the physiological aspects of anger. The analogy with a boiling tea kettle is used to emphasize the need for tension reduction. Acceptable ways for 'letting off steam' are also illustrated.

The film emphasizes the importance of recognizing anger as a natural reaction that should be expressed but "with due consideration of the feelings and safety of others."

The presentation of anger in its elementary components and the inclusion of appropriate solutions should make the film useful at the elementary school level.

A teacher's guide including the script is provided with the film.



EVEN HIS TONGUE HELPS IN USING A HAMMER

(From the film *And So They Grow*. Campus Film Productions)

## Psychology of Adolescence

### Beginning to Date

Esther Lloyd-Jones, Columbia University, collaborator. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 12 min., 1954. Available through Encyclopedia Britannica Films, 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Ill., and other distributors. \$50.00.

Characteristic aspects of beginning to date for boys and girls are clearly discussed and illustrated through the presentation of various teenagers' social situations. Dating is viewed as a social skill to be acquired through practice and awareness of particular requirements as to politeness, grooming, subjects for conversation, and general rules of etiquette.

The film presents the problem of dating at three levels: (1) planning a date, (2) characteristic approaches, and (3) enjoyment of dating. Each aspect of dating is clearly exemplified as experienced by teenagers in their beginning awkwardness and the successive stages of their acquiring a new social skill. The importance of a proper adjustment between the needs of the adolescent and home values is also implied through the particular attention given to 'getting home on time.'

The film presents the problem of dating in terms easily understandable at the level of the high school student, and as such it could be used for educational purposes. The situations illustrated in the film, moreover, could be used as a means for the discussion of various problems of adolescence, especially in direct relation to social behavior and adjustment.

The film is provided with a guide that gives indications as to use, references to related films, and the script.

### The Gossip

Young America Films. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 12 min., 1955. Available through Young America Films, Inc., 18 East 41st St., New York 17, N. Y. \$62.50.

Gossip as a deleterious practice within any school group is presented for discussion.

The film is developed around the conflict and heartbreak resulting from

unverified facts concerning a school test and a boy friend's apparent unfaithfulness. The gossip results in the loss of an election in a school club and the marring of a friendship.

The film is the pictorial description of a theme on gossip as written by a high-school girl. The problem of gossip as experienced at the level of the high-school student and its insidious nature is well illustrated.

This is a discussion-type film and is one of a series that treats various problems in group living. It could be profitably used with orientation classes, especially in high school. The presentation is made in terms easily understandable by the high-school student. With appropriate leadership the film could also be used as a means for a critical analysis of gossip in its individual and social implications. A teacher's guide is provided with the film.

### Getting Along with Parents

Carl R. Rogers, University of Chicago, collaborator; Milan Herzog, producer. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white or color, sound, 14 min., 1954. Available through Encyclopedia Britannica Films, 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Ill., and other distributors. \$62.50; color, \$125.00.

The problem of parent-child relationship at the period of adolescence is presented. Various film sequences show the reaction of parents in six different families to the request of the adolescent to be allowed to go for a night-club party after the junior prom dance. The reactions of the parents indicate their values as different from those of the adolescent group. In each case some insight into the reasons for this different value-orientation is given. In one case the parents do not allow their daughter to go to the party because their recent arrival in the city makes them unfamiliar with the situation; in another case, the mother cannot accept losing her dominance over her boy; in another, it is the father's strictness, or his judgment on the money-spending habits of the son. All of these cases illustrate the inability of the parents to understand and accept the behavior of their children other than from their own point of view. In one case, however, the matter is treated democratically and parents and children discuss it freely. The result

is a party organized by these parents in the basement recreation room of their house. The need for discussion and reciprocal understanding is emphasized.

The conflict between parents and children at the time of adolescence, as presented in this film, should allow for a systematic analysis of various factors contributing to the problem. Although the treatment in the film is limited to six families with reference to a particular situation, the wider implications of the 'weaning' of the adolescent and the reaction of the parents are clearly indicated.

The film could be analyzed at four different levels: (1) the process of personality growth as experienced by the adolescent in terms of organic, psychological and cultural factors, (2) the process of acquiring social independence and responsibility in terms of characteristic values and habits of response, (3) the re-orientation of the parents to the needs and aspirations of adolescence, and (4) the parent-child interaction within a given culture.

The film could also be viewed as an educational device for a better understanding of various problems connected with the needs of adolescents. It should be effective with both parents and adolescents, since the problem is presented in terms easily understandable by the average viewer.

As a whole the film should be particularly useful in the study of the psychology of adolescence.

A film guide with references to related films, indications for use, and script is available with the film.

### Learning to Study

Harold A. Anderson, University of Chicago, collaborator; John T. Bobbitt, producer. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 14 min., 1954. Available through Encyclopedia Britannica Films, 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Ill. \$62.50.

The importance of learning how to study is clearly demonstrated at the level of the high-school student. Learning is defined as a change in behavior that results from the acquisition of new knowledge, development of new skills, or a change in attitudes. Study is a conscious effort for learning. Thus it becomes important as a means for achieving a personal goal. In this way, either di-

rectly or indirectly, school work becomes worthwhile. Once the importance of school work is recognized, each assignment should acquire a particular meaning within the total study program.

The need for a clear understanding of the purpose of each assignment, and the appropriate use of various tools of study such as the dictionary, charts, graphs, maps, and other study aids, are also stressed. The use of a time schedule, vicarious experiences through motion pictures, the reviewing and applying of what was learned represent three means for improving learning. All these principles of learning and techniques are illustrated throughout the film as they are seen in the behavior of various high-school students.

The film could be used for a detailed analysis of how to study. Basic principles of learning, acquisition of specific skills, and the relevancy of particular techniques for study could be discussed with reference to different situations presented in the film. In this way the usefulness of the film should go beyond its immediate teaching value. A high-school student viewing the film could become aware of the basic principles of study. With a teacher or discussion leader the film could preface or supplement a course on how to study. It could also be useful as a supplementary aid to the study of learning in introductory psychology. A teacher's guide with references to other related films is provided with the film.

### Personality and Emotions

Joseph McVickers Hunt, University of Illinois, collaborator; Milan Herzog, producer. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 13 min., 1954. Available through Encyclopedia Britannica Films, 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Ill., and other distributors. \$62.00.

Various aspects of emotional development and its contribution to the formation of personality are presented. Starting with the cry of a newborn baby, the film shows how the capacity for emotional responses acquires different modes of expression through the impact of environmental conditions. The reaction of the child to a first injection in the doctor's office, and its fear of a dog as a result of the mother's fear, exemplify the process of emotional conditioning. Repression,



jealousy, and psychosomatic responses are also explained and illustrated. The emergency theory of emotion is clearly illustrated through animation showing characteristic physiological processes. Emotions of a pleasant nature, such as love of adults and the love of parents for their children, are also discussed. Emotions should be recognized as a natural aspect of human behavior and as such used for the development of a mature and healthy personality.

The film presents emotional responses from a developmental point of view with emphasis on learning as a process through which basic emotional capabilities acquire different associative bonds and characteristic modes of expression.

Personality as a total response of the individual to environmental conditions presupposes an integrative process of emotional factors as structured through learning.

The film could be profitably used in classes in child or general psychology as a good aid in the presentation and discussion of emotion and personality. A teacher's guide with script, indications for use and references to related films, is provided with the film.

### Why Vandalism?

Bruno Bettelheim, University of Chicago, collaborator. Hal Kopel, producer. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 17 min., 1955. Available through Encyclopedia Britannica Films, 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Ill., and other distributors. \$75.00.

The vandalism of teenagers as an individual and social problem is clearly analyzed and illustrated.

The film shows three boys that come from inadequate home backgrounds. Their behavior is characteristically maladjusted to the social environment and they are individually unhappy. They do not join any club; they feel unwanted. As they walk at night by their school one of them, Jeff, who has a pet rabbit in the science classroom wants to show it to his friends. They enter the school through an open window. The friends are not impressed with the rabbit but react to the graded test papers on the desk of the teacher, since Jeff has a poor grade. They tear up the test, start destroying the furniture, and finally start a fire by pulling down a shelf of chemicals.

The film concludes with the sentencing of the boys in court and the judge's analysis of various factors leading up to vandalism. Parental responsibility and the role of the church, school, and other cultural or social agencies within the community are emphasized.

The film could be profitably used for a detailed analysis of teenagers' vandalism in terms of personal and social factors. Used with classes in general or social psychology, it should provide useful illustrations for the study of social behavior in terms of its clinical and educational components. The problem of social responsibility within the community and the individual's assimilation of culturally sanctioned patterns of behavior could also be analyzed.

A guide with indications for the use of the film, the script, and references to related films is provided with the film.

### The Son

The National Film Board of Canada. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 27 min., 1953. Available through Encyclopedia Britannica Films, 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Ill., and other distributors. \$125.00.

The quiet, uneventful life of a Canadian farmer and his relations to his wife and son are presented. Absorbed in his work he educates his son according to the needs of the farm. He disregards or fails to recognize the son's needs and aspirations. This results in a reaction of the son who, intending to get married, for the first time openly defies his father. Through the intermediary of the mother, the father recognizes his mistake and discusses the problem with the son. Finally their differences are reconciled through a legal partnership agreement on the farm.

The film as a whole should be particularly useful with lay audiences. It could, however, be as well used for a discussion of various problems of childhood and adolescence, especially with reference to home atmosphere, parental attitudes and values, and general aspects of social development.

The film is provided with a guide with suggestions for using the film, and the script.

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## Mental Health

### Out of the Shadows

Joseph S. A. Miller, psychiatric consultant. Robert Smith, supervisor. Producer, Campus Film Productions, Inc., 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 18 min., 1955. Available through Public Relations Department, Federation of Jewish Philanthropies of New York, 130 East 59th Street, New York 22, N. Y. \$75.00. Free of charge for single showings.

The diagnosis, treatment, and rehabilitation of the mental patient, as well as modern psychiatric hospital facilities, are demonstrated through the presentation of a case diagnosed as acute schizophrenia. The patient is admitted to the hospital and is given physical, psychological, and psychiatric examinations. Psychotherapy, electric shock, occupational and recreational therapies are also shown. The patient is followed through various stages of his recovery.

The wife of the patient visits the hospital and cooperates in the process of recovery. The film emphasizes the fact that the recovery and rehabilitation of the mental patient is a slow process of personality reintegration. It requires understanding, patience, and specialized help. The modern psychiatric hospital, open to the patient for voluntary hospitalization, represents a definite progress toward a better understanding of mental illness and its sociopsychological nature.

The film as a whole is a good demonstration of the modern psychiatric approach to mental illness. It could be used as a teaching device and as a means for mass education as to present day views on mental illness and its treatment.

### To Serve the Mind

Department of National Health and Welfare of Canada. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 25 min., 1954. Available through International Film Bureau, Inc., 57 East Jackson Blvd., Chicago 4, Ill., and other distributors. Rental, \$7.50.

Psychiatric facilities for the treatment of mental illness are dramatically presented. The film is developed around a medical doctor who suffers a mental breakdown. The onset of the illness, in terms of characteristic states of confusion, depression, and withdrawal, are well illustrated. The treatment and

rehabilitation of the patient through medical and psychotherapeutic techniques as available in present-day psychiatric hospitals is shown.

Other patients and the general impact of various mental and emotional disturbances on individual behavior are also shown.

The film could be used as a device for the analysis and illustration of characteristic aspects of mental illness and the techniques available for treatment. The fact that the patient presented is a medical doctor should act as a means for enhancing the interest of the viewer, especially with lay audiences.

### Seizure

Veterans Administration Medical Film. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 45 min., 1951. Available through Geo. Craig Stewart, 757 Judson Ave., Highland Park, Illinois. Free of charge.

Medical, psychological, and social aspects of epilepsy are dramatically presented. A war veteran, who in his childhood experienced seizures of the petit mal type, develops grand mal seizures while working in a garage. He is admitted to a Veterans Hospital, treated and helped in his rehabilitation.

The film could be analyzed at three levels: (1) the social and psychological effects of epilepsy, (2) specialized techniques for the treatment of epilepsy, (3) the social condition of the epileptic as affected by prejudice, ignorance, and general public misunderstandings.

Short film sequences show characteristic types, treatment techniques, brain surgery, and the diagnostic use of EEG.

The adjustment problems of the epileptic are clearly demonstrated. The need for an awareness of these problems by the hospital personnel and the public at large is emphasized.

The film should prove helpful in classes in abnormal and social psychology. With competent leadership in discussion, the technical and general aspects of epilepsy could be analyzed in great detail. Although the film is addressed to professional groups, it could also be used with lay audiences as a means of information about epilepsy and its social aspects.

## Social Psychology

### Belonging to the Group

Robert J. Havighurst, University of Chicago, collaborator. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 16 min., 1954. Available through Encyclopedia Britannica Films, 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Ill., and other distributors. \$75.00.

The process of adjustment to the group is analyzed and illustrated, through the presentation of the contrast of two families arriving in town on the same train, one coming from another American town, the other from abroad. Their children also have to make an adjustment to the school situation. The film presents characteristic aspects of the need of being accepted and belonging to the group, as well as the reactions of the group.

Typical situations presented refer to a church social, school, work environment, and everyday town conditions.

The film emphasizes the value of democratic relationships in which respect for individual differences and free acceptance of responsible social living are stressed.

The need for adjustment to the group as illustrated in this film could be analyzed into its individual and social components. In this way, with proper leadership, various sociopsychological problems could be discussed at the level of the audience.

The film could be used as an educational tool as well as for a critical discussion of characteristic social problems in terms of individual adjustment and group behavior.

A special guide including the script is provided with the film.

### Neighbors

Norman McLaren. 16-mm. motion picture film, color, sound, 9 min., 1954. Available through International Film Bureau Inc., 57 East Jackson Blvd., Chicago 4, Illinois. \$100.00, rental \$5.00.

Conflict between human beings constitutes a psychological problem with social and moral implications. The efforts toward promoting a better understanding are not always successful, although the genesis of conflict in many cases is trifling. Many a human tragedy could be avoided if basic needs were bet-

ter understood and education were successful in promoting greater respect for human dignity. It is generally recognized that conflicts would be avoided if man could control his immediate needs. Educational efforts are aimed at achieving this objective either through direct learning and training or through indirect means such as art or the theater.

This film uses to advantage a special photographic technique, supplemented with sound, to point out the essential aspects of the conflict between two neighbors. The conflict develops over the possession of a little flower. The origin of the dispute, the damage to property, and the behavior of the protagonists are presented so as to show the wanton nature of the whole conflict.

The film should appeal to lay audiences and make evident the futility of most human conflicts.

### Our Invisible Committees

National Training Laboratory in Group Development. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 25 min., 1952. Available through National Training Laboratory in Group Development, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington 6, D. C. \$85.00.

Individual background in terms of social role, interest-group allegiances, and family tradition is well demonstrated as affecting the work of a committee composed of a minister, a PTA member, a lawyer, a settlement housing representative, and a socially minded chairman.

The committee discusses the problem of the behavior of boys in adolescent gangs and each member brings into the discussion his own views.

Through the use of animated diagrams the position of each member as to his background and social relations is clearly illustrated. This is supplemented with a cinematographic fantasy in which each member of the committee is experiencing various pressures from his reference groups. The contribution of everyone to the work of the committee is affected by these pressures which cannot always be overcome.

The film emphasizes the need for a clear understanding of the factors that affect group thinking in terms of individual status or social frame of reference.

This film should prove useful with classes in social psychology for the study of group behavior.

## **Educational Psychology**

### **The Search: Inadequate School Facilities**

Harvard University, Center for Field Studies, Graduate School of Education. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, approx. 28 min., 1955. Available through Young America Films, 18 East 41st St., New York 17, N. Y. \$125.00, rental \$5.00.

The problem of inadequate school facilities and approaches to its solution are clearly presented. Characteristic aspects of school inadequacies as to buildings, library facilities, overcrowding, fire hazards, and shortage of teachers are discussed with emphasis on the need for accurate information, appropriate interpretation of data, and action. The method of gathering information by following the pupils through a whole day at school, called the "shadow technique," is well illustrated. Teachers' and parents' interviews, systematic survey of physical facilities through check lists and objective scoring, as well as community reaction to the condition of schools are also shown.

The importance of the educational investigation and its effect on general school activity is illustrated through a comparison between an old school (Chelsea) and a modern one (Pittsfield).

The film as a whole represents a valuable contribution to the understanding of school problems as they exist within typical American communities. The need for research and enlightened community cooperation in the solution of these problems is emphasized.

The film should be particularly useful with classes in educational psychology and for the training of teachers and school administrators. Used with lay audiences it should provide for a better awareness of the school needs and promote interest in educational problems.

### **Outward Bound**

British Information Services. 16-mm., black and white, sound, 24 min., 1954. Available through British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y. \$55.00; rental \$2.50.

Educational programs for youth with emphasis on outdoor physical activities and development of practical skills are

presented. The film shows the work at two 'Outward Bound' schools in Britain, one in Aberdovey, the other in Cumberland. The first provides for activities in the area of seamanship, the second in the area of mountain climbing. Both schools provide for activities conducive to healthy development and experiences in terms of initiative, alertness, endurance, team work, and practical skills. The educational and training programs create a climate in which young boys can satisfy their basic social and individual needs.

As a documentary film *Outward Bound* presents an educational effort well adapted to the needs of society. It could be used with lay audiences and as an approach to the analysis of characteristic problems in educational psychology.

## **Sensation**

### **The Nose**

John J. Ballenger, Northwestern University School of Medicine, collaborator; Milan Herzog, producer. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white or color, sound, 11 min., 1954. Available through Encyclopedia Britannica Films, 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Ill., and other distributors. \$50.00; color, \$100.00.

The anatomy and physiology of the nose are clearly presented through diagrams, models, animation, and microphotography, appropriately supplemented with narration. A three-dimensional model is used to show the passage of air from the nostrils to the upper turbinate, above which the nasal mucosa constitutes the olfactory area. The olfactory area in man is also compared with that in other animals. Besides olfaction, the most important function of the nose is to adapt the air to the condition of the organism.

The effect of chilling upon the speed of travel of the mucus blanket in the nose is also shown and the implications for nasal hygiene analyzed.

The film is a good demonstration for the study of the nose, its structure and function. It could be used effectively with classes in general and physiological psychology as an introduction to the study of olfaction. The photography in the film is excellent and the presentation

accurate. The film is one in a series of Encyclopedia Britannica Films on biological subjects that excel by their clarity and accuracy.

A detailed film guide with indications as to use, references to related films, and the script, is provided with the film.

### **The Search: Deafness**

John Hopkins University. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, approx. 30 min., 1955. Available through Young America Films, 18 East 41st St., New York 17, N. Y., and other distributors. \$125.00, rental \$5.00.

The problem and techniques of diagnosis and treatment of deafness in children is clearly presented.

A two-year-old child, with a severe hearing loss, is brought by his mother to the Hearing and Speech Center. He is examined and the exact amount of hearing loss is accurately determined through the use of the technique of conditioning.

The film emphasizes the importance of early diagnosis of hearing loss, the need for training in hearing and speech, and also the value of the hearing aid. Also shown are basic principles of training in hearing, characteristic noise-making toys for children, and the reaction of children to the training. The importance of helping the parents understand the condition of the child and his possibilities of improvement is discussed and illustrated.

The film represents a good demonstration of modern technical and training facilities for the correction of hearing deficiencies. It could be profitably used with lay audiences and also for a detailed analysis of hearing and its implication as to child development in general.

### **The Search: Noise and Health**

University of California at Los Angeles. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 27 min., 1955. Available through Young America Films, Inc., 18 East 41st St., New York 17, N. Y., and other distributors. \$125.00.

The problem of noise and its effects on the human organism is illustrated and discussed. The film explains the physical nature of sound, its possible effects under certain conditions, and various techniques for its control.



The problem of noise is approached at two levels: (1) physical aspects of noise and possible control at the source and (2) the specific effects of noise on hearing.

Various film sequences show a sound-proof room, an echo room, a sound-proof jet hangar for the study of the noise produced by jet engines; also the study of hearing loss as a result of occupational noise.

A research project on occupational noise dealing with the relationship between hearing loss and level of noise, differential frequencies, individual differences, and ear-protecting devices are also discussed.

The film was made with the cooperation of the acoustics laboratory, U.C.L.A., and should prove useful as a means for the promotion of a better understanding of noise problems, at the level of lay audiences.

## Safety Education

### It's in the Cards

Crowley Films, Ltd. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 18 min., 1955. Available through International Film Bureau, Inc., 57 East Jackson Blvd., Chicago 4, Ill. \$85.00.

This is a safety film that dramatizes the effects of disregard of specific safety rules in a paper mill. The workers are instructed to place a "hold card" on the main power switch of any machine on which they have to do repair work. The card indicates that the switch should not be touched, and it should be removed only by the worker who had put it in place. Disregard of this rule results in a series of serious accidents, one of which ends in the death of the worker.

The film represents a powerful dramatic appeal to the importance of respecting safety rules in any shop or factory.

The technique of presentation in this film is similar to that used in *It Didn't Have to Happen* (CP, 1956, 1, p. 60), and appears as particularly effective. The audience is forced into witnessing situations that, because of their emotional impact, cannot be easily forgotten.

This type of film, although dealing with specific factory situations, should

extend its effectiveness to workers not directly involved in the work presented. The emotional experience provided by the film could be easily generalized.

## Smoking

### Tobacco and the Human Body

C. A. Mills, University of Cincinnati, and Klaus R. Unna, University of Wisconsin, collaborators; Milan Herzog, producer. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 15 min., 1954. Available through Encyclopedia Britannica Films, 1150 Wilmette Ave., Wilmette, Ill., and other distributors. \$62.50.

The effects of tobacco on the organism are demonstrated. The film starts with a short history of tobacco and the spread of its use throughout the world.

Various film sequences show a special smoking apparatus that permits an analysis of tobacco smoke as nicotine and tobacco tars. The proportion of different components of tobacco tars is also indicated. The effects of tars and nicotine on the organism are illustrated through animation, use of special instruments, and experiments with animals. The nicotine acts on the ganglia of the autonomic nervous system, on the junction between nerve and muscle, and on the brain. The nicotine first stimulates the nerve cell and then slows down its function.

The effects of nicotine on skin temperature, constriction of blood vessels, and heart beat can be measured. Experimentation with a rabbit intestine and direct application of nicotine to a rabbit heart show immediate effects.

The film ends with the question, "Why do people smoke?" The problem of smoking in the light of present-day knowledge is opened for discussion.

Besides its value as a demonstration of the effects of tobacco, the film could also be used for a detailed analysis of addiction in general. It could be profitably used with classes in general psychology in connection with the study of motivation and psychology of addiction.

The film is provided with a guide giving indications as to its use, references to related films, and the script.

# Announcing America's Psychologists

## A Survey of a Growing Profession

By Kenneth E. Clark

University of Minnesota

A report of a study of American psychologists, sponsored by the APA Policy and Planning Board and supported by the National Science Foundation, which provides a clearer view of psychology in the mid-twentieth century by describing the people who are active in the field, and the nature of their activities. Some have been outstanding in research productivity. What are they like? How do they differ from their less productive colleagues? Are there major differences among psychologists in, say, experimental psychology and those in, say, industrial psychology? To answer such questions, Dr. Clark and his collaborators have studied the undergraduate education, family backgrounds, types of jobs held, and attitudes and values of different groups of psychologists. How many persons in the United States are engaged in predominantly psychological work? Are recent recipients of the PhD similar to or different from those who received the degree 10 or 20 years ago? Where are psychologists employed? What do they read? These are samples of the questions that are discussed and on which substantial amounts of factual data are given in the pages of this report.

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*Life is the art of drawing sufficient conclusions from insufficient premises.*

—SAMUEL BUTLER

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